DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 344 539 HE 025 453

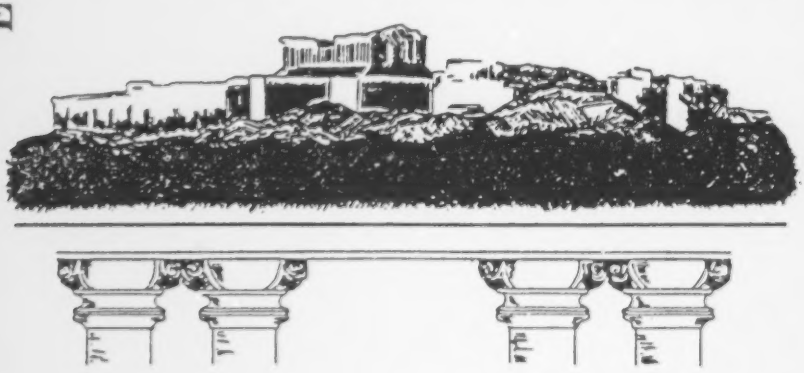
AUTHOR	Kurfiss, Joanne, Ed.; And Others
TITLE	To Improve the Academy: Resources for Student, Faculty, and Institutional Development, 1987.
INSTITUTION	Professional and Organizational Network in Higher Education.
PUB DATE	Oct 87
NOTE	210p.; For other volumes in this series, see ED 325 062-063 and HE 023 451-454.
AVAILABLE FROM	New Forums Press, 219 E. Greenvale Ct., Stillwater, OK 74076 ($8.50 plus $1.50 postage and handling).
PUB TYPE	Books (010) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC09 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Career Development; Case Studies; Classroom Research; *College Faculty; Educational Improvement; *Educational Strategies; *Faculty Development; *Higher Education; *Instructional Improvement; Learning; Skill Development; *Teacher Improvement; Technical Writing; Undergraduate Study

ABSTRACT

This collection of papers, the sixth in an annual series, presents the views of members of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education on improving research, career development, conceptual models for program planning, and teaching and learning. Articles and authors are as follows: "The Need for Classroom Research" (K. Patricia Cross); "Development Models of Faculty Careers: A Critique of Research and Theory" (Mary Pat Mann); "Faculty Development Needs as a Function of Status in the Academic Guild" (Sandra Powell Barber); "Starting at the Beginning: The Concerns and Needs of New Faculty" (Jim L. Turner, Robert Boice); "Patterns of Successful Faculty Career Change: A Study of Career Transition Within the University" (Sripen Supapidhayakul, Edwin L. Simpson); "The University and the Rediscovery of Teaching: A System-Level Model" (John Bailiff, Susan Kahn); "Colleagues as Catalysts for Change in Teaching" (Robert J. Menges); "Faculty Collaboration for Better Teaching: Adult Learning Principles Applied to Teaching Improvement" (Elizabeth A. McDaniel); "Faculty Developers as Facilitators of Scholarly Writing" (Robert Boice, Jim L. Turner); "A Marketing Approach to Conducting Successful Workshop-Based Programs for Faculty" (Linda Hilsen, Emily Wadsworth, Judy Cohen); "Strengthening Faculty Development Programs Through Evaluation" (Ann Ferren, Kay Mussell); "Teaching the Hearing-Impaired College Student: Current Practices in Faculty Development" (Karen Conner, Harry G. Lang); "It's Working: A Training Program for Foreign Treaching Assistants" (Rosslyn M. Smith, C. Len Ainsworth); "Non-Traditional Intervention Strategies for Improving the Teaching Effectiveness of Graduate Teaching Assistants" (Jody D. Nyquist, Ann Q. Staton-Spicer); "Rescue the Perishing: A New Approach to Supplemental Instruction" (Calvin B. Peters). References follow chapters. Contains title and author indexes. (GLR)

ED344539

To Improve the Academy



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A Publication of the Professional & Organizational Development Network in Higher Education

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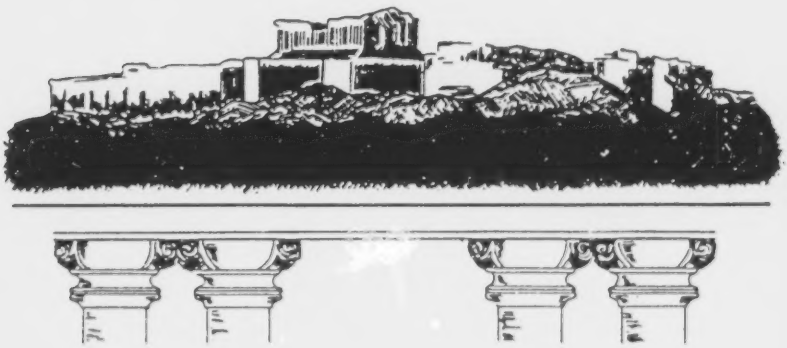

Resources for Student, Faculty, & Institutional Development

A Publication of the Professional & Organizational
Development Network in Higher Education
1987

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Published by
The Professional and Organizational Development (POD)
Network in Higher Education

FIRST PRINTING: October, 1987

Foreword

To Improve the Academy is a collection of essays written by members and supporters of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD). Now in its sixth edition, *To Improve the Academy* attests to the quality and diversity of professional development practice in higher education today.

For over a decade POD has concentrated on making learning, teaching, and academic life more effective and fulfilling. Our members meet each year in October to catch up on new developments in the field and to support each other in the search for more effective practice and more deeply grounded theory. Over the thirteen or so years of our association's existence, we have found that much can be accomplished when we share freely what we are learning about our institutions and the people in them. For this reason, we do not copyright any of the articles we publish. Instead, we invite you to reproduce and use the material in this volume. We ask only that you credit the authors and this volume and that you communicate your reactions about the material to the authors. They will welcome your inquiries and responses.

If what you find here is useful or provocative, join us for our next fall conference. If you are not already a member of POD, we hope you will consider joining. The POD network is an excellent way to keep in touch with academic professionals

who appreciate collaboration and mutual support.

Finally, if you would like to share your research, reflections, conceptualizations or practices with us, we encourage you to submit a proposal for our next conference or a manuscript for possible inclusion in the next edition of this volume.

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PART I: RESEARCH
Toward a Research Agenda on Classroom Teaching

In this volume, we continue our custom of publishing the keynote address from our annual fall conference. This year, Harvard educator K. Patricia Cross, most familiar to us through her work on non-traditional students, proposes a non-traditional approach to teaching improvement. She suggests that by empirically investigating questions that arise from their own teaching experiences, faculty can improve their teaching and revitalize themselves as educators. Although we've titled this section "research," it really incorporates elements of reflection, conceptualization, and practice into an argument in favor of faculty-generated research on teaching.

Professor Cross's proposal implies an important role for faculty development practitioners: we can use our varied disciplinary perspectives on teaching and learning to help faculty transform their curiosity about classroom phenomena into researchable questions; and we can assist them in planning and conducting studies that will illuminate their questions. By facilitating classroom research, we become catalysts and collaborators with faculty, helping them to generate personally relevant knowledge about teaching and learning. By encouraging faculty to share what they learn with other educators, we can, as Cross suggests, increase our understanding of the specific contexts in which teaching occurs. Faculty-generated studies will create a valuable resource for academics interested in

improving teaching while providing a necessary foundation for development of policies and programs that support teaching improvement.

Professor Cross's remarks challenge us to participate in the renewal of teaching through classroom research; *To Improve the Academy* offers a context for sharing work in this domain. In 1985, we published several accounts of classroom research projects and we would like to publish more in the future. We hope the article that follows will stimulate you to initiate or extend classroom research projects with faculty colleagues to improve teaching and enhance professional development, and to contribute to our understanding of teaching and learning processes.

The Need for Classroom Research[1]

K. Patricia Cross
Harvard Graduate School of Education

The single most important question in higher education for the rest of this decade will be, I think—What can and should be done to improve the quality of undergraduate education?

The reports that constitute the higher educational reform movement of the 1980s have taken as their major mission the improvement of undergraduate education. Most of the recommendations have to do with *what* is taught, i.e. the curriculum. Some seem to think that is where the problem lies—that students don't learn what they should learn in college. I am inclined to think, however, that *how* students are taught is even more critical. What is taught is important, but how it is taught makes the difference between a lifelong learner and a grade grubber, between enthusiasm for learning and indifference to it, between an educated society and a credentialed one.

Our educational system is based on the belief that something important happens when teachers meet students in the classroom. Most of any institution's budget is allocated to costs of instruction, and yet instruction receives very little attention from college administrators—not because we don't think it is important, but because we don't quite know what to do about a number of things. College teachers, for instance, are authorities in their disciplines. No one else at the institution knows quite as much about their particular specialties as they do, so there is an understandable reluctance to tell faculty what or how to

teach. Moreover, we in higher education equate academic freedom with the sanctity of the classroom, and there is a tradition of restraint in probing too deeply what goes on there. And finally, there are some age-old questions that have not been answered to the satisfaction of many—What constitutes effective teaching? Who should evaluate college teachers and how? Can good teaching be recognized and rewarded?

Today's high interest in institutional assessment is one way of demanding attention to what students are learning without actually entering the classroom. Yet, what the assessors really want to know is—What are students learning in college classrooms?

Most of the reform reports are not happy with the learning that goes on in college classrooms, but the blame is generally placed, not on instructors, but on societal and institutional values that result in what might be called the Rodney Dangerfield syndrome, "Teaching don't get no respect." Faculty don't give it much respect themselves; both personal and institutional prestige are associated more with the scholarship of faculty than with the scholarship of students.

The reform reports are harsh in their criticism of these attitudes. They blame the lack of attention given to teaching on everything from "a failure of nerve and faith" and "a vacuum in educational leadership" (Bennett, 1984) to "a misguided overemphasis on research and a corresponding neglect of teaching" (Project on Redefining . . . 1985). Graduate schools are charged with the production of "too many narrow specialists" (Bennett, 1984), and with "awarding the Ph.D. degree to generation after generation of potential professors professionally unprepared to teach" (Project on Redefining . . . 1985). While there is plenty of dissatisfaction with the quality of instruction, there are few constructive suggestions for what to do about it.

Part of the problem, I think, is that there are two unexamined assumptions that underlie most of the educational reform movement. The first is that educational reform consists of making large highly visible policy decisions—the installation of statewide testing or incentive systems, for example, or the appointment of blue-ribbon commissions to study curricular reform. There is very little attention given to the potential impact of thousands of small classroom reforms that might add up to real and substantial change. Somehow we have convinced ourselves

that there is more power in *making* decisions than in implementing them. So we worry about involving professors in policy decisions, but we fail to consider what each teacher acting in his or her own classroom might do to achieve reform.

The second assumption of the current educational reform movement is related to the first. We assume that if we really want action, it must come from the top—that state legislators, campus administrators or some other authority should assume responsibility for creating a system of rewards and punishments that will shape the behavior of those we want to change—in this case college teachers.

Most of the reform reports assume, for example, that if the rewards for teaching were greater, more time and attention would be given to instruction, and it would improve. Without denying that greater rewards, more attention, and more value placed on teaching would undoubtedly help, it is by no means certain that we really know what to do to improve teaching. The notion that greater rewards will improve teaching assumes that professors know how to teach well, but are not doing so because there are other things more rewarding.

I am going to assume, for the purposes of getting this discussion off the ground this morning, that this is an ideal world, that the big dramatic policy decisions have been made, and that good teaching will be appropriately rewarded. Now what?

First we have to decide what good teaching is. We are not exactly novices in discussing and researching that question. There is an extensive literature on what makes a good teacher. Basically, there are three ways to describe effective teachers: 1) we can describe their characteristics—training, experience, knowledge of subject matter, etc.; 2) we can describe their behaviors in the classroom—whether they ask provocative questions, call students by name, encourage discussion; and 3) we can describe what students are able to do as a result of the teacher's efforts—how much they know, how well they think, their attitudes toward learning. In short, the literature consists of descriptions of input, process, and output variables. The criterion problem is present, of course, in all of these approaches. That is, in order to describe what a good teacher is, or does, or accomplishes, we need to know how we are defining a "good" teacher. A little reading of the literature on this issue quickly drives one to paraphrase the Supreme Court justice commenting

on pornography, "I can't define good teaching, but I know it when I see it."

Well, maybe that is not such a bad position to take. All of us can identify good and poor teachers on our own campuses, and when researchers go onto a campus and start asking students, faculty, and administrators to identify the best teachers on campus, it doesn't take long to come up with a list that shows rather high agreement.

Much of the agreement, of course, comes from the hearsay of student comments on teachers and courses. In recent years, "hearsay" has been formalized into systematic student ratings, and student evaluations of teaching have been widely adopted nationwide. In a recent survey, Peter Seldin (1984) found that 98 percent of four-year liberal arts colleges claimed that classroom teaching is a "major factor" in evaluating faculty, and more than two-thirds said that student evaluation is "always used" in evaluating teaching. That represents substantial growth in recent years in confidence in student evaluations; just over half of the colleges were as dependent on student ratings in 1978.

To the credit of higher education, the use of student ratings increased in proportion to the positive findings from research on the reliability and validity of student evaluations. Although researchers can still manage to raise reservations and new questions for study, I think the judgment is fairly well in by now. Students are reliable observers; they have ample opportunity to see teachers in action on good days and bad, and they are in a good position to evaluate the impact of the teaching on themselves as learners.

Moreover, the evidence suggests that student ratings have good validity, i.e. that students tend to rate most highly those courses in which they learn the most. Centra (1977) found correlations in the .60's and .70's between scores on final exams and student ratings of "overall teaching effectiveness" and "value of the course." While one can still find reported correlations ranging from negative to high positive, the tilt of comprehensive, well-designed studies—and the more recent meta-analyses (Cohen, 1982)—is clearly toward significant positive correlations between student achievement and positive course ratings.

Another test of the validity of student ratings is to relate

student evaluations to teacher behaviors in the classroom. Murray (1985) found that teachers who received high student ratings did, according to neutral classroom observers, teach differently from teachers receiving low ratings. Highly rated teachers were well-organized, expressive, interacted more with students, related subject matter to student interests and in general demonstrated the behaviors that students report for good teachers.

Students also tend to be reliable and relatively unbiased raters. There is no evidence to support the myths that popular teachers are mere showmen, that alumni will find virtues in professors that were not respected ten years earlier, that teachers who are tough graders will receive low ratings, or that agreement on the identity of good teachers is difficult to achieve (Gaff and Wilson, 1971).

One answer to those who are ready to reward good teaching if it can be identified is that students know good teaching when they see it. But students can go further; they can describe the characteristics and behaviors of good teachers. The research, by this time, is fairly consistent on what students consider important factors in effective teaching. Feldman (1976) reviewed a group of studies in which students were asked to describe "good" or "ideal" or "best" teachers. He found eight characteristics that were usually ranked high in all studies: concern for students, knowledge of subject matter, stimulation of interest, availability, encouragement of discussion, ability to explain clearly, enthusiasm, and preparation. There is nothing at all surprising about his findings. These characteristics turn up over and over again in one form or another when students are asked to describe good teachers.

Factor analytic studies of student rating forms show rather similar clusters of characteristics. Feldman (1976) reviewed nearly 60 factor analytic studies and concluded that there were three major clusters in effective teaching—the instructor's ability to present the material, to encourage students to learn, and to regulate and deal fairly with students. Kulik and McKeachie (1975) reviewed eleven factor analytic studies of teacher rating scales and found similar factors which they labeled as follows: "Skill," which represents the ability to communicate in an interesting way, to stimulate intellectual curiosity, and to explain clearly; "Rapport" which involves empathy, interaction

with and concern for students; "Structure" which concerns organization and presentation of course material, and "Overload" which refers to the workload and instructor demands (Abrami, 1985).

I find all of this quite credible, and I have no difficulty believing that teachers who have these characteristics not only rate high with students, but probably are good teachers. Since student evaluations are far and away the most common form of teacher evaluation at the college level, teacher effectiveness is currently being defined and determined by a combination of researchers, who decide which items should go into the rating scales, and by students who decide which items will be important.

The next five years will probably see the rapid growth of another set of judges and definers of good teaching. The movement toward assessment of student learning—for surely it can be called "a movement" by now—purports to use student outcomes as the measure of educational effectiveness. At worst, this will put the definition and reward of good teaching in the hands of external agencies who will decide what students should know and how it is to be measured. At best, it will call attention to the goals of instruction and how well they are being accomplished. Statewide testing of student achievement is certainly on the increase, and while it is quite unlikely to determine an individual teacher's future, it is possible that teachers will be encouraged to "teach to the test." If the test really measures what students should learn in college, that may not be all bad, but few have that much confidence in our current measures of learning.

The assessment movement underway now has ambitious goals but quite modest accomplishments. Almost everyone would like to measure a wide range of student outcomes, affective as well as cognitive, to develop in teachers the insight and motivation for instructional self-improvement, and to integrate assessment into the instructional process. However, what we have to date in most places is the measurement of a narrow band of fairly low-level cognitive skills. While current practices seem a long way from the ideal, the search for better measures must be undertaken. Assessment is the first step to improvement.

Yet a third set of judges of the criteria for teaching effectiveness are educational researchers. Educational researchers go about determining teacher effectiveness in a variety of ways.

They count; they observe; they conduct experiments; they write ethnographic or naturalistic descriptions; they survey other people. While some would claim that researchers don't determine the criteria for teaching effectiveness and that their task is to describe what exists without imposing their own values on the data, that is not what really happens.

The major value that researchers impose on the search for criteria of teaching effectiveness is that the findings must be generalizable, that is to say, not specific to any particular classroom. The methods of traditional social science research—sampling, tests for significance, control of variables, and the like—are devised largely to prune out situation-specific influences, leaving those characteristics common to all or most effective teachers. Yet, some of the most effective teachers any of us can remember were effective because their unique characteristics worked in very specific situations. The search for criteria for teaching effectiveness that has been conducted with considerable energy and earnestness by researchers over the past decade is helpful in showing us what effective teachers have in common, but it masks some of the most useful information, specifically any insight into how *individuals* with their infinite variety and unique values and interests develop into effective teachers in a situation-specific classroom.

I have taken some time to review the current status of research on the criteria for evaluating the quality of instruction because I want now to talk about what's missing and how we can find it and apply it to the improvement of undergraduate instruction.

The first thing that is missing from the literature is some good discussion of what teachers are trying to accomplish. Students, legislators, and researchers all have entrees to defining the criteria for good teaching. But, in my survey of some 200 articles and books on college teaching, I came across only two studies that asked teachers what they wanted students to learn from them. True, teachers serve on committees to develop achievement tests; they serve on curriculum committees; they are frequently polled regarding hours spent in class preparation, perceived rewards for teaching, and attitudes about the policies of their institutions. But they are rarely asked what they are trying to do in their own classrooms.

A classic study by Axelrod (1976) found that even among

the relatively homogeneous population of humanities' teachers in 4-year colleges, teachers were aiming for vastly different outcomes. Some taught to the goal of mastery of subject matter. Some worked to help students develop higher level cognitive skills such as synthesis, analysis, and evaluation. Some were more interested in the personal development of their students, while others tried to model for their students the well-educated mind at work.

Studies of teaching goals in community colleges would probable reveal additional goals. Some teachers are trying to teach job-entry skills, some have the building of self-confidence and self-respect as their first priority. Some feel strongly that the greatest service they can render is to see that students learn the basic skills of communication.

The first step then, I should think, in improving undergraduate instruction is to find out what teachers are trying to do. If that is not what they should be doing or if their aspirations are not high enough, that's one thing. But if they do not or cannot accomplish the goals they set for themselves, then that is a different problem.

The second element that is missing from the literature on effective teaching is a constructive approach to applying research to improve practice. I specify "constructive approach" because, over the years, there has been criticism of practitioners for their failure to use research, on the one hand, and criticism of researchers for their failure to work on useful questions, on the other. But I think the gap between research and practice is the fault of neither.

Social science research, with its search for general truths that hold across all classrooms, is not designed to address the situation-specific questions that teachers have. What a teacher needs to know is how his or her behavior affects the learning of a known group of students, studying a specific learning topic, under known conditions. By and large, the purpose of educational research is to push back the frontiers of knowledge and to build the foundations for understanding. John Dewey (1929, p. 19) wrote almost sixty years ago that, "no conclusion of scientific research can be converted into an immediate rule of educational art." Research on teaching and learning is simply too large and complex to extract findings that can be easily disseminated to teachers as rules to improve teaching practices (Fenstermacher, 1982).

Donald Schőn (1983) contends in his provocative book entitled *The Reflective Practitioner* that research has done little to improve practice in any of the professions. In fact, he says, universities pursue "a view of knowledge that fosters selective inattention to practical competence and professional artistry" (p. vii). He calls for us to put aside the notion that "intelligent practice is an *application* of knowledge to instrumental decisions" (p. 50) and instead to help professionals gain insight into their practice through an ongoing process of reflecting on what they know, articulating their intuitive thinking, and seeking feedback about the results of practice.

Schőn's concept of reflective practice offers helpful new perspectives on the use of knowledge to improve practice. I continue to think it is both possible and desirable for teachers to collect and use both "hard" and "soft" data on student learning. However, research designed for the improvement of teaching should be situation-specific, and it should provide immediate and useful feedback on what students are learning as an aid to reflective practice.

Situation-specific research may, at first blush, appear to result in knowledge with extremely limited usefulness to the profession of teaching, but my guess is that the exchange of knowledge from many specific classrooms will give teachers more useful insight into the teaching/learning process than the search for generalizations across a "representative sample" of students, teachers, and subject matters.

The third thing that is missing is a literature on how to conduct research in and on the classroom, with its inevitable variations in teachers, students, and subject matter. An articulate group of critics of traditional educational research is beginning to be heard promoting various alternatives, such as ethnographic research, naturalistic inquiry, action research, qualitative methods, and reflective practice (See, for examples, Guba, 1979; Guba and Lincoln, 1981; Eisner, 1980, 1984; Argyris, *et al.* 1985; Schőn, 1983; Stiggins, 1985). This is a scattered but promising development, one that should add valuable perspectives to the search for knowledge about teaching and learning.

But naturalistic inquiry, ethnographic research, and the other new alternatives to quantitative, experimental research, for all their value—and it is considerable—are not the answer

to a research approach to the improvement of teaching either. Many of their rules and conventions are no more applicable to the improvement of classroom practices than those of quantitative and experimental research. Naturalistic evaluation, for example, requires "lengthy and prolonged" engagement by a highly trained researcher (Williams, 1986), and part of the value of ethnography comes from the notion that findings should "evolve" from the study rather than be interpreted as "answers" to questions formulated by researchers (Smith, 1982).

Perhaps we could simply work harder and write more (perish the thought) to fill in the missing pieces that I have identified from my review of the literature on effective teaching, but I suggest that it is time to develop a different approach, specifically designed for what we want to accomplish, namely, the improvement of undergraduate instruction. I believe that it is time to give classroom teachers more responsibility for doing the type of research that will improve their own teaching. I call this Classroom Research. The purpose of classroom research is to help the teacher evaluate his or her effectiveness as a teacher and to foster intellectual stimulation and professional renewal. The concept of classroom research springs from six basic assumptions:

1) That the quality of student learning is directly related to the quality of instruction.

2) That teachers need to know what their students are learning in their classrooms.

3) That inquiry and intellectual challenge are sources of professional renewal for teachers.

4) That the research most likely to improve instruction is that conducted by classroom teachers formulating and investigating questions that they want answered.

5) That self-improvement is most likely to result from specific feedback relevant to one's own goals and behaviors.

6) That there is nothing so mysterious or esoteric about research on college teaching that it cannot be done by anyone capable of teaching at the college level.

I suggest that the implementation of classroom research should begin with experienced teachers in the field, but I also

think that every graduate student planning to teach any subject in any college should demonstrate competency in conducting investigations into the effectiveness of his or her own teaching. New graduate courses need to be designed, new methods devised, new perspectives developed. Let me give some concrete examples of what some possible classroom research projects might look like.

First, I would like to give an example of the contrast between how a classroom researcher and a traditionally trained researcher might approach a similar problem. Let us assume that the problem is the familiar one of dropouts. In the traditional studies of dropouts that we all know so well, the researcher selects representative samples of dropouts and persisters, and after collecting data from student records, determines the differences between persisters and dropouts, inevitably concluding that dropouts come from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, made lower grades in high school, work more hours off campus, are commuters, and have lower educational expectations.

While these findings are verified so frequently by researchers that we have to conclude that they are indeed factors in dropping out of college, all of the factors identified are what Ben Bloom (1980) would call "unalterable variables." There is nothing that educators can do to change them.

Now let us see how a classroom researcher might study this problem. Let us assume that our classroom researcher is curious about the dropout problem, decides to interview some students who stopped coming to class, and finds out that a certain amount of discouragement sets in as the semester's work begins to build. As she reflects on this observation, it occurs to her that she usually hits her stride as a teacher about the fifth week of the semester and feels ready to tackle some of the more difficult units about that time. She notes that the high dropout in her own classes occurs about five weeks into the school year, and she concludes that she might try a number of things in her own classroom to reduce needless dropouts—perhaps give an especially satisfying assignment, maybe rework or reschedule the difficult unit, maybe call in a few students and talk with them about the unit or about the class, perhaps offer special encouragement, make a referral, drop a note, make a call.

The procedure of the classroom researcher is to formulate the question, collect data, reflect on classroom practices, try a

solution, and evaluate the results. There is nothing especially new about those methods; they are frequently recommended for huge well-funded projects that can afford longitudinal "R and D." The difference is that teacher motivation is enhanced through classroom research because the question for study is framed by the teacher, and implementation is facilitated because there is no gap between "researcher" and "practitioner."

Faculty meetings might well be planned around classroom research projects to share data, perceptions, and possible solutions. The emphasis in faculty meetings should be on the use of data and systematic observation; discussion might appropriately range from sharing useful and creative approaches to gathering data, to data analysis, to recommendations for possible changes in policies and practices within the department. Academic departments have come back into style with the arrival of the assessment movement. There is considerable merit in setting departmental goals for student learning that are consistent with institutional goals. But the contributions of the physics department may differ from those of the history department. Institutional goals are far more likely to be accomplished if teachers—collectively in departments and individually in classrooms—determine what they can offer to collegiate learning and assess how well they are accomplishing their part.

Classroom research projects may also be of primary interest to an individual teacher. I think, for example, that teachers need a set of "feedback devices" that will tell them how students are responding to classroom procedures. Examples of this sort of project are numerous. Perhaps the teacher wants to know whether a "review session" prior to the mid-term helps in long-term retention or is only useful for immediate test score gains. Or perhaps the teacher is interested in knowing whether a field trip is worth the effort in changing attitudes about a particular social problem—or would reading about it or discussing it or seeing a dramatization on videotape do as well or better? Maybe a math teacher, interested in teaching a particular math concept, reads about another teacher's method and decides to test it in his own classroom.

The projects for classroom research are limited only by teachers' imaginations. While the examples I have presented do not generally call for complicated methodologies or analyses, there is nothing to prevent interested teachers from studying

very complex learning problems. Mina Shaughnessy's (1977) contribution to the improvement of student writing was arrived at through sitting down with hundreds of beginning writers and sensitively observing individual struggles with the writing process.

In conclusion, I think it is time to get classroom teachers involved in the study of teaching and learning. They should be intellectually curious about it as well as professionally involved in the improvement of their own teaching practices. While classroom research can be done now by any teacher with the appropriate curiosity and motivation, I believe that if classroom research is to help all of us, there should be standards for the quality of the research.

I am working now on the development of a graduate course in classroom research. Its primary purpose would be to help teachers assess student learning as it occurs in the classroom. One important unit of the course involves learning about "feedback devices" which may range from oral responses to teacher questions designed to assess class progress to more complex measures of cognitive skills to student reactions to teaching procedures. You could be of great help to me if you would write out any feedback devices that you know about and mail them to me.

I am also interested in collecting samples of course evaluation forms currently in use. Some of the items are potential clues to student self-assessments of learning and to student reactions to classroom procedures. As such, they serve as valuable feedback devices to inform classroom teachers about student reactions while there is still time to use the information for the benefit of that class. I hope that you might also be willing to send me course evaluation forms used in your college.

I suspect that no one knows quite as much about the realities of improving instruction as the members of this group, the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education. But I think we have just started to scratch the surface in improving college-level teaching.

I conclude where I began. The improvement of undergraduate instruction is on the agenda now, and your work is all important.

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NOTE

1. This manuscript was prepared with funding from the National Center for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning (NCRIPTAL). The project reported herein was performed pursuant to a grant from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement/ Department of Education (OERI/ED). However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the OERI/ED and no official endorsement by the OERI/ED should be inferred.

PART II: REFLECTIONS Career Development Patterns and Needs of Faculty

Thoughtful, effective programming for faculty and institutional development depends on an understanding of faculty as individuals, but this understanding must be conditioned by a knowledge of faculty roles, the contexts in which faculty work, and the forces at work in their career development. However, as our first paper points out, assumptions about faculty career patterns based on "generic" research on adult development have not been subjected to rigorous empirical testing. The author, Mary Pat Mann, notes limitations of existing research on faculty career development and points out the dangers of uncritical acceptance of frequently-cited stage models.

The remaining papers in this section illustrate different approaches to the problem of specifying faculty needs in relation to career development stages. Sandy Barber identifies faculty needs deductively, based on analysis of the academic "guild" system and institutional context. Turner and Boice focus on new faculty, and identify their needs empirically. Finally, Supapidhayakul and Simpson use methods of phenomenological investigation to explore experiences of faculty who change careers but remain within their original institutions. These papers provide a basis for revised, clarified understanding of faculty needs, enabling us to rethink our potential contributions to their career development.

Developmental Models of Faculty Careers: A Critique of Research and Theory

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In colleges and universities today, traditional views of the faculty career are far from accurate. Demographic changes and past tenure decisions are creating an aging professoriate. New doctorates become academic nomads unable to find permanent positions. Faculty feel they have fewer options and face greater pressures than ever before. Institutional financial difficulties have put tenured faculty out of work. In addition, the entry of more women and other minorities challenges traditional academic culture.

Like traditional career concepts, old approaches to faculty development do not meet current needs. As consultants and researchers, we are looking for new ways to understand and work with faculty, to go beyond the teaching role and examine other professional and life experiences. This exploration includes studies of faculty stress, the impact of aging, and how faculty integrate family and career goals—topics just emerging in the faculty development literature ten years ago.

One aspect of this expanding focus is an interest in how faculty careers change and develop over time, leading some faculty developers and researchers in higher education to explain career changes as part of a developmental process. In the current literature, developmental models have been uncritically applied to faculty careers (e.g., Hodgkinson, 1974; Cytrynbaum, Lee, and Wadner, 1982; Mehrotra, 1984). Concepts like

generativity or the midlife crisis are becoming part of our vocabulary with little attention to their limitations or impact. An examination of how developmental models have been applied to faculty careers suggests that this area is based on limited, and flawed, research and that the models themselves place unnecessary limits on what we can do as faculty developers.

This critique examines the use of developmental models in research on faculty careers. It begins with an introduction to current models, moves to an analysis of research findings and limitations, and concludes with a discussion of the impact of this work on how we think about faculty careers.

AN INTRODUCTION TO DEVELOPMENTAL MODELS

Research on change in faculty careers is not new. For example, studies of political attitudes, workload, and productivity show that these and other factors change predictably over time (Ladd and Lipset, 1975; Havinghurst, *et al.*, 1979). In contrast to studies of individual factors, however, developmental models integrate a broad range of changes in attitudes, goals, and performance as part of a progressive, invariant process. Two perspectives have been used to explore faculty careers: adult development, based on developmental psychology, and career development, based on vocational and organizational sociology.

Adult development models present a series of psychological stages that focus on critical decisions or transitions. Current interest centers on the work of Erik Erikson (1963) and Levinson, *et al.* (1976, 1978) who hold that each of us pass through life stages in a fixed order. Each stage has an age range which, while permitting some individual variation, sets the time frame within which the stage will be experienced.

Erikson's model covers the entire lifespan in eight growth stages. Each stage focuses on the resolution of two conflicting values, one supporting positive ego growth and the other leading to stagnation and internal conflict. Unresolved issues carry forward and increase the pressures felt in subsequent stages. Only three of Erikson's stages relate to mature adulthood: intimacy vs. isolation (the crisis of young adulthood), generativity vs. stagnation (mature adulthood), and ego identity vs. despair (old age). However, Erikson's work has strongly influenced both career and adult development theories by contributing key

concepts and a model based on alternating periods of crisis and resolution (Munley, 1977).

Levinson, *et al.* (1976, 1978) present a more differentiated picture of mature adulthood that includes eight stages. Each stage is associated with particular tasks and experiences that share a common theme. For example, "Entering the Adult World" (ages 22-28) includes locating a mentor, becoming established in a career, and developing a life dream. "Mid-Life Transition" (40-45), often referred to as the "midlife crisis," involves questioning one's early goals and achievements, dealing with the disparities between them, and recasting personal goals. Levinson considered these stages to be universal and age-related and, at the same time, to reflect broad social forces.

In contrast, career development models link stages to work-related transitions rather than individual growth. These models emphasize an organizational rather than personal view of career change focused on "*common elements* in career histories" (Hall, 1971). Super and Hall (1978) consolidate several approaches into a five-stage model that includes exploration, establishment, advancement, maintenance, and decline. Stages relate to career events like organizational entry or promotion, but are usually defined in terms of the number of years an individual has spent in a particular career or organization. As in adult development models, the stages are considered to be invariant.

Since both adult and career development models use time (age or number of years in a career) to mark stage transitions, it is possible to link these two types of stages into a single formulation. In fact, many discussions of developmental approaches mix psychological and organizational factors (Baldwin, 1979; Cytrynbaum, Lee, and Wadner, 1982; Clark, Corcoran, and Lewis, 1984; Lawrence and Blackburn, 1986). A classic example appears in this paragraph from Super and Hall's (1978) review:

> The teens and early twenties are a period of trial jobs and getting established (Super), settling down ('SD,' Levinson), and intimacy, or forming commitments (Erikson). In the forties, the person cuts any remaining ties with mentors (becoming one's own man, or 'BOOM,' from Levinson), and enters midcareer. This can be a period of either growth, decline, or plateau, depending upon personal and organizational factors. It is a time when the person is concerned with what she or he is producing of lasting value

to future generations (generativity, from Erikson). In late career, a period of decline is hypothesized (Super), and the person begins to withdraw from the work organization and starts planning for retirement. The person comes to terms with his 'one and only' life cycle (integrity, from Erikson).

While other models have been proposed, particularly in adult development (Brim, 1976), the ideas of Erickson, Levinson, Super, and Hall have had the most impact on work in higher education. These models suggest that the academic career can be described in terms of a series of stages experienced in fixed order within specified time periods.

APPLYING DEVELOPMENTAL MODELS TO FACULTY CAREERS

Do faculty careers fit a developmental pattern? Very few studies have examined this question empirically. In fact, I can find only one designed to test a developmental model (Stumpf and Rabinowitz, 1981) and one that used a developmental model to organize descriptive data on faculty careers (Baldwin, 1979). There are, however, several other studies of change in faculty careers that shed some light on this question (Bayer and Dutton, 1977; Blackburn and Havinghurst, 1979; Clark, 1985; Lawrence and Blackburn, 1986; Sorcinelli, 1986).

Stumpf and Rabinowitz (1981) studied career stage and performance in a sample of 102 full-time business school faculty at a large northeastern university, postulating that the relationships between role perception, job satisfaction and performance would differ across career stages. They used Hall and Nougaim's (1968) three-stage model: 1. The *establishment* stage included those in the profession two years or less, 2. *Advancement* included faculty with between two years and ten years experience, and 3. *Maintenance* included faculty with more than ten years experience. The faculty completed questionnaires on their satisfaction with work, promotion, pay, and co-workers; role conflict; and role ambiguity. Performance measures included publications, student evaluations of teaching, peer nominations for excellence, and salary change.

The authors developed hypotheses, based on developmental theory, about how attitudes and perceptions would relate to performance at the various stages. The establishment stage, for

example, should be characterized by a strong positive relationship between satisfaction with work and performance measures. This reflects the primary task of the establishment stage, that of "learning the ropes." Faculty who express satisfaction with their work at this stage must be comfortable with the new position and could be expected to do well on performance measures. In contrast, the advancement stage should show a strong positive relationship between performance and satisfaction with promotion, since "getting ahead" is an important goal in this stage. While the authors found that career stage had some impact on the relationahip between performance and satisfaction, individual hypotheses were either contradicted or only weakly supported.

This study is compromised by the limits used for career stages (less than 2 yrs., 2-10 yrs., 10 + yrs.), drawn from an earlier study of performance and job satisfaction among public employees (Gould and Hawkins, 1978). The model, hypotheses, instruments, and analysis are virtually identical in the two studies. However, Gould and Hawkins based their career stages on research of government organizations. The limited results suggest that the research design suffered in its translation to an academic setting. The entry period for new faculty is usually considered to be closer to three years than two. The tenure decision, coming around the sixth year, is a major career event so pre- and post- tenure years should not fall into a single stage. Finally, the career academic can remain a productive member of the profession for at least 30, and possibly 40 or 50 years. Starting the maintenance stage at ten years doesn't say much for the continuing challenge of academic life.

Baldwin (1979) analyzed interview and questionnaire data from 106 male college faculty from midwestern liberal arts colleges using a model that combined Levinson's personal and Super's career development stages. He defined five stages based on rank and number of years in the profession: I. Assistant professors in the first three years of teaching, II. Assistant professors with more than three years of teaching, III. Associate professors, IV. Full professors more than five years from retirement, and V. Full professors within five years of retirement. The study examined career goals, satisfaction, and frustrations. Faculty were asked about their professional strengths and limitations, how they solved professional problems, and their thoughts on alternative careers.

Baldwin felt his work provided general support for developmental ideas, but made no attempt to confirm or deny explicit characteristics of the model: "Overall, the interview data confirm that important development and change do occur throughout the academic career" (p. 17). Instead of examining whether the data fit the model, he accepted the model as a given and cut faculty careers to match. This lead to vague conclusions like "Changes in professors' attributes and experiences appear to be accompanied by different methods of adapting to vocational demands," (p. 17) and " . . . colleges should be sensitive to the working conditions of new faculty" (p. 18).

Another analysis of the same data (Baldwin and Blackburn, 1981) identified four patterns of career events: stable, evolving, and fluctuating characteristics, and critical events. Stable characteristics included the importance of teaching and research and the percent of time spent on these activities. Evolving characteristics increased or decreased throughout the career and included assessment of teaching skills and comfort with those skills (which went up) and assessment of research skills, comfort with those skills, pleasure in teaching, and the salience of career goals related to success and achievement (which went down). Fluctuating characteristics exhibited a curvilinear relationship with career stage. For example, level of comfort with students reached a peak in the middle years while career satisfaction and participation in professional development activities dropped. Critical events identified by faculty included professional opportunities like sabbaticals and special projects, and also promotions and role changes.

This classification of variables according to patterns of change (stable, evolving, fluctuating, and critical) provides a way to compare faculty at different types of institutions, or in different disciplines or areas of the country. The patterns could be used to test the adult/career models. Relating patterns to continuous variables such as chronological age or organizational tenure, rather than pre-defined stages, could suggest whether stage models are appropriate and, if so, indicate where stage transitions are most likely to occur.

Other studies of faculty career patterns provide little support for developmental models. Blackburn and Havinghurst (1979) asked a group of male social scientists to reflect on their careers and identify critical events. The patterns of events

reported did not fit either chronological or career age models. Bayer and Dutton (1977) analyzed survey data on the research activities of over 5,000 faculty in seven fields. They found that the mathematical models that best fit the data were quite different for each discipline and that results could only be explained by considering generational effects as well as age effects. Sorcinelli (1986) also emphasizes the importance of disciplinary differences in understanding faculty careers, based on interviews with 112 faculty in four areas. Clark (1985) sees academia as "inherently fragmented" into disciplines with very different career patterns and goals.

The research base is small, but clearly suggests that faculty careers form patterns more complex than the simple framework provided by developmental models. Chronological and career age affect career decisions and job performance, but so do generational and environmental variables like the current demand for Ph.D.s, economic trends, and political events. In addition, age, generation and environment interact in complex ways that are difficult to isolate in analysis (Lawrence and Blackburn, 1986). Finally, evidence suggests important differences by discipline.

LIMITATIONS OF CURRENT RESEARCH

Perhaps the primary limitation of research in this area is a failure to recognize limitations. Despite the tentative nature of their findings and limitations of the sample, researchers have not hesitated to generalize their results and to formulate broad recommendations for faculty development and administrative programs (Baldwin, 1979; Baldwin and Blackburn, 1981; Baldwin, 1983; Clark, Corcoran, and Lewis, 1984). For, example, Baldwin and Blackburn (1981) found that interest in research declined steadily throughout the career. On this basis, they recommended programs and policies to revitalize faculty research. Their study sample, however, came exclusively from liberal arts colleges. The typical liberal arts college emphasizes teaching and service and, while not actively discouraging research activity, does not support it to the extent that research colleges and universities do. Increasing faculty interest in research may not be important to liberal arts colleges, and may not be necessary in other, more research-oriented, institutions.

Also, finding that the early years were a stressful time for faculty, Baldwin and Blackburn (1981) recommended that administrators lighten the load of new faculty, relieving them of some professional responsibilities. Work with business managers, however, suggests that such a policy could be counterproductive. A five-year study of new management trainees at AT&T confirmed that new assignments were stressful. However, the most productive, satisfied managers at the end of the five-year study had been given challenging, meaningful assignments early in their career along with the support needed to succeed (Hall and Hall, 1976). A more appropriate recommendation, then, might be to give new faculty the support they need to be successful, rather than lightening their load.

Most available studies of faculty careers have methodological limitations, including small samples that represent only a few disciplines and types of institutions. Most studies also used exclusively male samples (Baldwin, 1979; Blackburn and Havinghurst, 1979: Havinghurst, *et al.*, 1979; Baldwin and Blackburn, 1981; Lawrence and Blackburn, 1986); others did not test for differences on the basis of sex (Stumpf and Rabinowitz, 1981). However, the little research that has been done on women's careers suggests that career-related behaviors and attitudes are not the same for men and women (Super and Hall, 1978; Clark, Corcoran, and Lewis, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1986).

The lack of longitudinal data is another serious limitation. Cross-sectional studies preclude testing for the effects of social or political changes on observed differences between age groups. This makes it easy to overlook the possibility that differences in career goals and behavior reflect differences between generations rather than individual developmental changes (Dannefer, 1984; Finkelstein, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1986).

Another limitation on research in this area may be the validity of the adult/career development models themselves. Dannefer (1984) characterizes adult development models as limiting, reductive, and inappropriate. Focusing on an "underlying concept of maturational unfolding" limits theory and research by denying the importance of individual differences and downplaying the role of the environment in influencing development. The next section will consider how these models influence our thinking about faculty and faculty development.

DEVELOPMENTAL MODELS AND FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

Thomas Kuhn noted that " . . . all models have similar functions. Among other things, they supply the group with preferred or permissible analogies and metaphors" (1970, p. 184). Adult and career development models offer metaphors that cast the faculty member in a passive role and define the task of faculty development as helping individuals and institutions adjust to inevitable forces. These metaphors hamper communication with faculty and restrict the scope of faculty development efforts. Three characteristics of the models are relevant to this argument: The models are not grounded in the experiences of faculty, they create new norms for faculty careers, and they describe faculty careers as predictable and outside individual control.

Adult and career development models are largely based on research on non-professional career and life patterns (Levinson, 1976, 1978; Super and Hall, 1978). The nature of professional careers in general and the autonomy that remains a core value in academia suggest that executive or blue-collar models will not fit professional careers (Clark, 1985). Instead of importing models, we need qualitative studies that explore how faculty themselves view their careers (e.g., Sorcinelli, 1986).

Thompson and Dalton's (1976) research on productivity in engineering R&D organizations illustrates the value of models grounded in the experiences of the professionals under study. Their stage transitions and examples clearly place the model in an engineering context: Stage one is an apprenticeship stage, characterized by working on projects under the direction of others. Stage two is marked by increasing levels of responsibility and independence and improved technical expertise, often in a narrow area. Stage three includes an expansion in one's breadth of expertise, new contacts with the external environment, and responsibility for serving as a mentor to others. Stage four reflects a pulling away from day-to-day project work, engagement in a wide variety of outside interactions, significant influence over the future of the organization, and active involvement in sponsoring the development of others.

Individuals pass through the stages in the order given, but each stage reflects a new level of professional development.

Moves from one stage occur *if and when* an engineer is professionally ready. Whether or not an individual develops is partly a function of ability and inclination, but is also affected by the nature of the organization. Some organizations facilitate development while others hinder it, and the recommendations focus on how organizations can do more of the former. Grounding the research in the engineering context makes it possible to develop specific recommendations, and gives the model and the researchers' conclusions added validity.

Developmental models claim the advantage of replacing a traditional, static view of faculty with the recognition that careers are dynamic and evolving. The models provide a more differentiated picture of academic careers, but fixed stages also create a new set of norms that limit conceptions of appropriate development. For example, Clark, Corcoran, and Lewis (1984) refer to one group of faculty in their study as "promotion delayed," applying that label to anyone remaining at a particular level beyond a specified number of years. Yet, their discussion of this group revealed that not all faculty in that group were "delayed;" rather, some were pursuing studies that required many years to complete and so did not expect promotion until their work showed results.

It should be noted again that adult and career development models are based almost exclusively on male career patterns. The norms created by these models set a particularly inappropriate standard for women, and probably minority, faculty. Minority faculty are still so few that no one has studied their careers. Sorcinelli (1986) found that women experienced more interruptions in pursuing academic careers than men. Clark, Corcoran, and Lewis (1984) characterize the careers of women faculty as showing "accumulated disadvantage."

The most critical impact of developmental models on faculty development may be in characterizing career changes as controlled by inevitable, maturational forces. That is, developmental stages originate in the individual, but are not within individual control. Instead, the faculty member must "deal with" changes; the quality of one's life is judged not on action, but on reaction to life's progress. In such a world, the role of the faculty developer becomes one of helping faculty to recognize and adjust to life stages rather than empowering faculty to take control of their own careers. The problems with a strict

developmental approach have already been recognized (Dannefer, 1984; Clark, Corcoran, and Lewis, 1984). We already know that the environment also plays an important role in career changes and professional development, and must be taken into account in studies of faculty careers. However, adding environmental impacts to our model reinforces the idea that control is outside the scope of the individual—either faculty or faculty developer.

In contrast to the implied prescriptions of developmental models, Spilerman (1977) describes a dynamic, descriptive approach to the concept of a career—that of a "strategic link" between the labor market and the individual. This approach calls for models which include both environmental and individual variables, and reflect actual patterns of specific labor markets, or among individuals with similar characteristics. Career path models identify "stable labor markets through which workers flow." Such markets are usually characterized by multiple points of entry and branching pathways to various roles or positions. Describing the boundaries, entry points, and paths of a given market becomes the initial research task. This allows studies of characteristics of individuals and of how organizations influence the paths that are available.

Data already collected might yield interesting results if analyzed dynamically. For example, Blackburn and Havinghurst (1979) noted that their data on social scientists fit a career path model, in that some faculty had held a variety of positions in several organizations (some outside higher education). In addition, Sorcinelli (1986) found that career paths differ across academic discipline and that faculty in professional schools had held a wider variety of positions than faculty in the natural sciences.

Mortimer and Simmons (1978) note that both environmental and developmental models of career change see adult socialization as a conservative force. The process is characterized as rather predictable and the individual exerts little influence over its course. In contrast, they describe three other approaches to adult socialization which view the individual as proactive and influential in determining the course of one's life and career. *Symbolic interactionism* focuses on the meanings we create in our lives. Perceptions and attitudes become more important than "facts," as individuals structure ambiguous

social situations to meet their own goals. *Exchange theory* sees the individual as an independent negotiator who bargains with others in the environment for desired outcomes. *Expectancy theory* holds that an individual will choose to remain in a setting only if others meet his/her expectations. Any one of these approaches offer a view of the faculty member as an active, controlling agent. This view of the faculty also serves to broaden the scope of the faculty developer's role to include working with faculty to create meaningful symbolic structures, negotiating with and on behalf of faculty, or influencing the expectations of both faculty and the institution.

Few of us would subscribe fully to the deterministic view of developmental models presented here. We are aware that individuals can exert some influence over their lives, and that some seem to do this more successfully than others. In practice, the influence of developmental thinking is more subtle. It can be seen in the dismissal of the disenchantment of an associate professor with the diagnosis "he's having a midlife crisis," or in the assumption that an aging faculty member is in "decline" and is not likely to respond to attention from the institution. It is important for us to be aware of the origins of these ideas, to scrutinize the evidence on which they are based, and to consider more empowering alternatives on which to base our own development work.

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Faculty Development Needs as a Function of Status in the Academic Guild

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Faculty members today face a professional identity crisis. They belong to a relatively stable, permanent corps (Chait and Gueths, 1981). Insufficient attrition and increased retention of faculty in postsecondary institutions reduces mobility of faculty members (Chait and Gueths, 1981), and the higher salary provided by a potential employer may not offset the appreciable moving expenses when an opportunity does arise. The modal age of tenured faculty today is 36 to 45; by the year 2000, the modal age will be 56 years. Colleges and universities presently have more associate and full professors than faculty at the junior level.

Limited prospects for long-term advancement discourage many faculty. The faculty member's responsibility for the "holy trinity" of teaching, research, and service outstrips the time available in a day. There remains little time for renewal. Some faculty members consider themselves an endangered species, struggling to keep abreast of the never-ending explosion of knowledge and to cope with rapid technological change.

Finally, faculty members claim that accountability replaces concern for quality in the learning process. Postsecondary institutions typically make it mandatory for faculty to participate in a performance evaluation process, but this type of evaluation remains summative in nature and does not provide guidance for faculty renewal. In contrast, analysis of faculty members' needs

can become the basis for constructive faculty development programming.

As Bowen and Schuster (1986, p. 29) claim, "The faculties of America are a great national resource which have been subjected to deferred maintenance." Yet the continued growth and improvement of both the academy and the teaching-learning process remains dependent upon renewing and revitalizing the faculty. Clark (1985, p. 8) defines faculty development as a program of structured activities that promote self-renewal, personal and professional growth, teaching effectiveness, and life-long career development. Faculty development focusses on improving professional competence (Harrington, 1986). However, "professional competence" is not a static entity. At each stage of a faculty member's career, different needs become salient. This paper analyzes faculty careers in an attempt to uncover faculty members' needs related to the academic guild through which they ordinarily progress. I identify these needs and discuss their application in specific academic settings.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT STAGES

The academy possesses its own guild system. Each rank within the guild has distinctive characteristics and areas of concern for professional development. While the salience of these concerns varies among individual faculty members, it is possible to construct a prototype or portrait for each position in the guild. This portrait or "faculty profile" provides clues to the professional development needs of the faculty at various stages in their careers (refer to the summary in Appendix).

The typical assistant professor spends his or her time working towards tenure. The emphasis in this rank centers on research productivity recorded in publications. The discipline serves as the professional reference group for the assistant professor (Freedman *et al.*, 1979, p. 62). Developmentally, this junior faculty member values knowledge for knowledge's sake, looks upon education as pouring facts into empty vessels, and identifies students as empty vessels (Ralph, 1973). The assistant professor's outlook on the learning process lacks complexity and flexibility, and emphasizes competition among students.

The tenured associate professor seeks to balance professional and personal goals (McKeachie, 1983). This faculty member

possesses the ability to work toward distant goals. He or she engages in avocational pursuits and community service activities (Freedman *et al.*, 1979, p. 98). Developmentally, the associate professor views knowledge as complex, students as people acquiring facts, and education as the process of creating conditions for learning.

The full professor, the most senior member of the guild, spends his or her time polishing contributions to the academy. Senior faculty members vary in productivity. The emphasis at this guild level is on the faculty member's position as an expert, a mentor, and a member of multiple distant reference groups. A full professor's goals include preparation for career transition to administration or a new field, and retirement planning. Developmentally, the full professor refines knowledge with the realization that he or she knows so little of what can be known. For these individuals, education involves intellectual engagement and the ability to synthesize. Many full professors think students should discover "answers" for themselves. They view their role with students as one of guidance. In outlook, full professors convey the greatest tolerance, complexity and flexibility in the teaching-learning process. However, as noted in the introduction, many senior faculty members become disillusioned and feel stuck in their professional roles. Attention to faculty development needs at all levels can help faculty remain committed, active, and flexible throughout their professional careers.

STAGE-RELATED FACULTY DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

Occupants in each rank in the academic guild have characteristic faculty development needs corresponding to their professional concerns. Junior faculty members, including instructors and assistant professors, exhibit five types of needs. The opportunity to serve a professional apprenticeship fulfills the junior faculty member's need for guidance in the early stages of career development. As an apprentice, the junior faculty member follows a role model, a mentor from the senior ranks who guides him or her through the hurdles of tenure and promotion and listens to problems along the way. Professional involvement needs for junior faculty include participation in appropriate disciplinary associations, networking, continuing education, research, and publication. Instructionally-related needs involve

learning varied teaching techniques, mastering the use of audio-visual aids, developing skill in course design, and understanding the teaching improvement process (Kerwin, 1985). Advising needs focus on techniques to use when advising students, instructional support for advising, and understanding student development models such as Chickering's "vectors." Service needs include identifying community concerns, selecting appropriate activities, and learning how to serve most effectively.

While rank determines a considerable proportion of a faculty member's needs, professional development needs can also vary according to the type of college or university setting in which the individual serves. For example, junior faculty members in a community college system need to (a) participate on committees at the college and system level, (b) engage in professional activities such as discipline and system-wide conferences, (c) develop student advisory expertise, and (d) expand knowledge of instructional techniques (Kerwin, Note 1). In contrast, junior faculty members in a research institution need programs to foster research productivity; like their counterparts in community colleges, they need to develop instructional techniques as well, particularly in areas such as teaching strategies, testing, and grading (Altman, Note 1).

Senior faculty include associate and full professors who manifest five types of faculty development needs. A mentorship meets their recognition need by allowing them to work with and guide junior faculty members, but this role requires training. Career assessment needs focus on development of new roles, retraining, consulting (internal and external in nature), and administrative service. Instructional renewal needs for senior faculty members can be met by training them to be teaching consultants. This role provides senior faculty members with the opportunity to share their expertise while refining their own teaching techniques. Within the renewal needs category, faculty members can engage in faculty exchange programs, sabbatical leaves, paid leaves, skill development programs, retirement planning, and academic elder statesperson roles related to teaching, research, and service. Renewal for senior faculty members often comes in the form of recognition for serving in the academy.

Renewal strategies appropriate for senior faculty members

in a community college include independent study, sabbaticals, writing books, and participating in summer teaching fellowships to support course redesign and advanced study (Kerwin, Note 1). Within the regional university, senior faculty members can meet their career assessment needs through taking a leadership role. In a university setting, faculty members need to make every effort to stay current. They can also benefit from working in industry or business for a year and from active community service (Auer, Note 1).

New faculty members (at all ranks) possess three types of faculty development needs. They need orientation to the mission of the school; its procedures, policies, and benefits; the environment of the school and community; and the type of students they can expect in their classes. New faculty members need to understand the institutional hierarchy and the folkways among faculty, administrators, and students. The role expectation needs of a new faculty member include a definition of their responsibilities in regard to teaching, research, and service as well as an explanation of the evaluation process and the reward system in the institution.

Most new faculty members need basic information about their new college environment. Faculty members at a regional university need guidance from the department chair on syllabus construction, course content expectations, and the procedures and policies outlined in the faculty handbook (Auer, Note 1). In a private, four-year college, new faculty members need orientation to the special mission and purpose of the institution. This orientation might include workshops on role expectations, committee service, student culture, policies, and characteristics of the school (Clark, Note 1).

Regardless of institutional setting, faculty members share development needs based on their rank in the academic guild. New faculty members need orientation to the institution, its mission, and its procedures; junior faculty members need to serve as apprentices under senior mentors; and senior faculty members need renewal and revitalization.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT: A NEED FOR THE ACADEMY

Faculty development emphasizes the renewal and revitalization of a natural resource imperiled: the American professoriate

(Bowen & Schuster, 1986). The primary purpose of faculty development is professional improvement (Harrington, 1986), but a well rounded faculty development program looks at the faculty member as a person and facilitates the individual's personal as well as professional growth at every stage in his or her career. Faculty development necessitates a coordinated effort by administrators and faculty members. Faculty members must commit themselves to lifelong learning, while administrators must provide the financial support, resources, and institutional encouragement for faculty renewal efforts.

Postsecondary institutions benefit from the dedication of people who serve on their faculties. These experts, representative of many disciplines, impart knowledge and ignite students' desire for continued learning. Faculty development programs help faculty members cope with the knowledge explosion, acquire new skills, and improve their effectiveness. Renewed and revitalized faculty members are excited about what they do and work to improve the teaching-learning process. The renewal gained through faculty development, then, benefits both the academy and its members.

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NOTES

1. Recommendations for individual college settings are based on interviews with the following people: Michael Kerwin, the Community College System/University of Kentucky; Tom Auer, Murray State University; Howard Altman, University of Louisville; and Robert Clark, Campbellsville College.

APPENDIX

Faculty Profile

A. PROFILE BY RANK

Assistant Professor

- Working towards tenure
- Emphasis—research productivity
- Professional reference group—discipline
- Developmental stage:
  - knowledge—absolute terms
  - education—pouring facts into empty vessels
  - students—empty vessels
  - outlook—dogmatic, lack complexity, competitive

Associate Professor

- Has achieved tenure
- Seeks balance between professional, personal goals
- Able to work towards more distant goals
- Active in avocational pursuits, community service
- Developmental state:
  - knowledge—more complex
  - education—a process, create conditions for learning
  - students—are people acquiring facts
  - outlook—less dogmatic, see causal relationships

Full Professor

- Polishing contributions to academy; variance in productivity
- Empahsis—position as expert, mentor; distant reference group
- Goals—pursuits for career transition (administration, new career, retirement)
- Developmental stage:
  - knowledge—refining, realize how little they know
  - education—engagement, ability to synthesize
  - students—discover answers themselves; guide them
  - outlook—flexible, tolerant, complex

B. NEEDS RELATED TO ACADEMIC GUILD STATUS

New Faculty, Part-time Faculty Needs

- Orientation
  - mission of institution
  - procedures, policies, benefits
  - environment (school, community)
  - type of student (cultures)
- Communication
  - structural—hierarchy
  - folkways—faculty, student, administration
- Role expectation
  - teaching—syllabus, texts, objectives
  - research
  - service
  - evaluation process
  - reward system

Junior Faculty Needs

- Apprenticeship (tutelage, novitiate)
  - role model
  - tenure and promotion
  - listener
- Professional involvement
  - appropriate associations
  - level of involvement, networking
  - continuing education
  - research, publication
  - career counseling
- Instructional techniques
  - teaching modes
  - course designs
  - audiovisual aids
  - TIP—teaching improvement process
- Advising
  - techniques
  - institutional support
  - vectors of student development
- Service
  - types of service
  - community needs
  - techniques

Senior Faculty Needs

- Mentorship
  - training, release time
  - listening, guiding junior faculty
- Career assessment
  - new roles, retraining
  - consulting (internal and external)
  - administrative service
- Instructional improvement—TIP
- Renewal
  - faculty exchange
  - sabbatical leaves
  - paid leaves
  - government service
  - study abroad
  - institute, industry, or business internship
- Future planning
  - avocational pursuits
  - personal skills development
  - retirement planning
  - academic elder statesperson role in teaching, research, and service

Starting at the Beginning: The Concerns and Needs of New Faculty

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Evidence continues to accumulate indicating that professors view the rewards of academic careers as diminishing. The recent Carnegie Foundation survey of over 5000 faculty members revealed that 40 percent saw morale in their departments as worse than it was five years ago, 40 percent experienced a declining enthusiasm for their work, and over half considered leaving academe (Jacobson, 1985).

To the extent that faculty development programs address this morale problem, they often focus on middle-aged, disillusioned professors (Boice, 1986). We readily assume that morale is fine among beginning assistant professors. And, we generally ignore the processes which affect morale for good or ill.

Studies of academic careers indicate that job satisfaction decreases from career onset until just before retirement, at which time it increases (Baldwin & Blackburn, 1981). There is some indication that this pattern is not gradual and linear, but includes predictable peaks and valleys associated with periods of career stability and transition. Most studies of academic careers, however, are cross-sectional in design and rely largely on a single interview or questionnaire.

In fact, we know surprisingly little about how faculty attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors change over time. This study describes the first year of a longitudinal project that tracks the course of these processes in new faculty.

PROJECT OBJECTIVES AND DESIGN

Beginning in the fall semester of 1985, we initiated an intensive longitudinal study of all newly hired faculty at a large state university. Although we focus primarily on beginning assistant professors with tenure track appointments, we also collect data on experienced newly appointed faculty and new full-time lecturers. Participation in the study is strictly voluntary; we assure all participants that they will remain anonymous and that all data will be used only for research purposes.

To date, over 95 percent of the 100+ individuals contacted have agreed to participate in the study, and most have been exceptionally cooperative. Approximately 70 new full-time faculty are currently being hired each year at the campus under study, and we will continue to add new sample members as time and other resources permit.

Our study aims at providing systematic ongoing documentation of (a) work habits, (b) teaching effectiveness, (c) scholarly productivity, (d) level of involvement in and enjoyment of various professional activities, (e) short-term objectives, (f) long-term career goals and aspirations, (g) critical incidents and/or other sources of satisfaction/dissatisfaction, and (h) other assorted attitudes, values, and behaviors. In addition, we are actively intervening with a randomly selected subsample of new faculty to help them effect a balance among demands for scholarship, teaching, and professional well-being.

The methods of data collection employed include a series of interviews, direct observation in both classroom and office, and self-observations by faculty in the form of structured journals, logs, and ratings. We are studying faculty at two levels of depth. All new faculty complete the structured interviews that appear in Appendices A, B, and C, during their first, second, and third semesters on campus. Ten new faculty randomly chosen from each year's cohort are invited to volunteer for more intensive, weekly visits by the researchers to offices and classrooms. Prior to the first rating session the authors carried out a series of pilot observations to insure agreement and reliability of ratings. We take turns alternating weekly visits to the classrooms and offices of new faculty. During these visits, we rate selected teaching behaviors (in the classroom) and assess several general and personal behaviors of interviewees (Appendix D). Except where a frequency count

is entered, we make 1-10 judgments of appropriateness (where 10 is most appropriate and ideal) on these rating sheets. Items on the rating scale pertaining to classroom performance come from current synopses of effective teaching behaviors (e.g., Brophy, 1986; Cuseo, 1986). Ratings of selected behaviors during office visits provide an ongoing record of variations in work-related attitudes and overall morale. New faculty in this subgroup also keep daily records of time utilization (Appendix E).

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The sample reported on here consists of 66 faculty hired for the fall semester of 1985. The majority of these new faculty (79 percent) have Ph.D. degrees, the remainder have master's degrees (e.g., M.A., MSW, MFA, etc.). The average age is approximately 34 (range = 27-54); 67 percent received their highest degree within the past five years. Sixty-two percent are male, 38 percent are female. Half were appointed in tenure track positions, half to full-time lecturer positions. This sample is heterogeneous with regard to discipline, with nearly all schools on campus represented.

RESULTS

Our first year of study showed that new faculty arrived with high expectations regarding the quality and quantity of collegial interaction they would experience. They anticipated an intellectually stimulating and supportive environment with frequent informal interactions about scholarly issues, teaching, and other professional matters. They expected their senior colleagues to be active mentors who would serve as good role models and as a source of constructive advice and encouragement. Frustration of these expectations produced the greatest number of reports of professional dissatisfaction.

Most new faculty reported that the low levels of intellectual companionship they encountered were crucial deterrents to their own performance, morale, and long-term professional development. Despite their expressed desire for collegial interaction, new faculty in their first year were not themselves proactive in this regard. They rarely initiated informal professional interaction with colleagues and rarely sought advice or

mentoring from senior colleagues. By the end of the first semester, nearly a third of the new faculty purported to have given up on their colleagues and asserted that their only source of intellectual stimulation and companionship would derive from interactions with students.

New professors in this sample reported that their workweek averaged 55+ hours. Fifty percent rated themselves as being the busiest they had ever been in their lives; 85 percent reported experiencing significant job-related stresses, symptoms of which included acute anxiety attacks, chronic sleep disturbance, loss of self-confidence, and frequent mood shifts.

The self-reported and observed work time of these new faculty in their first year was largely devoted to teaching-related activities. The majority of their workweeks was used in preparing for their classes. This often results in a syndrome which might be termed "assistant professoritis"—i.e., new faculty overprepare, feel compelled to teach everything they know, provide little time or incentive for student participation, impress students as aloof and unapproachable, receive poor student evaluations, and blame this outcome on the poor quality of students in their classes.

Although new lecturers had a heavier teaching load than their tenure track counterparts ($\bar{X}$ = 12.6 hours/week vs. $\bar{X}$ = 8.8 hours/week, respectively), lecturers received higher student evaluations and rated themselves as experiencing greater personal satisfaction than did tenure track faculty.

When asked to describe their most positive experience since arriving on campus, new faculty (both lecturer and tenure track) most frequently reported a particular incident illustrating the rewards of teaching. For example, new faculty expecially cherish recollections of students who offered praise such as claims that they found a class stimulating, perhaps the best class they had taken. In general, the teaching concerns of inexperienced new faculty continue to revolve around the following questions: How formal/informal should I be in my relations with students? What is the optimal level of student classroom participation, and how do I achieve it? How do I gauge students' level of understanding? How can I spend less time preparing for my courses and still do a good job? Why does teaching require so much time?

The new faculty on our study campus told us that they

hoped to spend 50 percent of their time on their own research and scholarship, but estimated that they would actually spend about 30 percent. In fact, they spent less than 15 percent so engaged during their first year. Indeed, most new faculty fell significantly short of their own stated objectives for scholarly productivity.

While nearly all anticipated completing at least one paper by the end of the first year, the modal number of papers finished was zero. Despite their heavier teaching load, new lecturers were as productive, in terms of papers presented at professional meetings and articles submitted for publication, as new tenure track faculty. Although reasons for this paradoxical finding remain unclear, teaching load does not predict scholarly productivity as well as supposed (Boice, in press).

New faculty (like many of their more senior colleagues) in this study strongly believe that creative scholarship, especially writing, requires large blocks of free time. During their first year on campus they made little effort to write at regular, brief intervals; instead, they felt that writing had to be done at home where they would be undisturbed. The result was procrastination and little scholarly writing.

DISCUSSION

This ongoing study indicates that new faculty in our sample are experiencing significant job-related stress. These newcomers discovered that their relationships with senior colleagues were not likely to be as supportive and stimulating as they expected. This finding is consistent with reports such as Fink's (1984) account of new faculty in geography, which makes similar points about the lack of anticipated collegiality and the negative effects of that deficit.

During their first semesters many new faculty in our sample received less than satisfactory student evaluations of their teaching. This unanticipated outcome, combined with the sense of isolation just mentioned, became a source of considerable distress and confusion.

Furthermore, by the end of the first year the majority of new faculty in our sample had devoted little of their time to creative scholarship and writing. Nearly all reported strong beliefs that productive scholarship is virtually impossible

without a significant reduction in their teaching load. And nearly all new faculty on tenure tracks expressed concerns about meeting minimum requirements of scholarly activity established by University committees for retention, tenure, and promotion.

Perhaps because they feel vulnerable, new faculty seem especially receptive and responsive to appropriate faculty development services and programs. Some of our ongoing efforts in this regard include:

Collegiality: Encouraging new faculty to take a proactive role in forming small support groups; to attend faculty development workshops on coping skills and faculty development classes on physical fitness; to learn about the needs and concerns of new faculty and the importance of their own contributions to initial adjustment and morale; and to follow through on interdisciplinary contacts and possibilities for collaboration.

Teaching: Offering constructive, practical feedback about classroom and office performance based on our direct observations and on student commentary; encouraging faculty to solicit peer observation of their teaching; and urging them to sit in on the classes of their colleagues.

Scholarship/Writing: Providing a series of workshops on scholarly writing; establishing support groups for writers; encouraging individuals to make writing a less painful, more public activity; working intensively with individuals who experience writing blocks and other hindrances to productivity.

Mentoring: Implementing a mentoring program for new faculty in which we assume a proactive role in establishing supportive relationships between senior faculty and their new colleagues. We begin with the assumption that mentoring is a crucial component of successful faculty careers (e.g., Sorcinelli, 1985; Wylie, 1983). In essence, our program emphasizes coteaching as the medium for structured and sustained interactions between faculty new to teaching and senior colleagues who excel at teaching and at balancing the demands for scholarship with teaching activities.

We believe that the success of all of these interventions hinges on the willingness of faculty developers to seek out new faculty, to become familiar with their individual needs and concerns, and, ultimately, to demonstrate that intervention programs can be of benefit. In an active role, faculty developers

can help improve collegial relationships, enhance comfort and performance in the classroom, promote scholarly productivity, and help facilitate other professional activities vital to successful careers in academe.

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APPENDIX A

New Faculty Interview Schedule A
(administered during first semester on campus with new faculty)

1. Career path
   a. Briefly describe process by which you chose to accept a position at CSULB.
   b. Other positions considered? Was CSULB your first choice? Ideally, what would have been first choice? (Rank order)
      ____ Small college with primary emphasis on undergraduate teaching
      ____ State college or university with equal emphasis on teaching and research
      ____ Major university with primary emphasis on research and graduate level teaching
      ____ Other
   c. What were major factors in choosing CSULB? (Rank order)
      ____ colleagues/quality of department
      ____ location
      ____ opportunities for scholarship
      ____ primary interest in teaching
      ____ salary
      ____ no other jobs available
      ____ other
   d. Circumstances being the same and knowing what you know now, would you make the same choice again? Why, why not?
   e. How long do you expect to be here?
      ____ less than 5 years
      ____ 5 to 10 years
      ____ 10 to 15 years
      ____ entire career
   f. If you expect to leave, what are the anticipated reasons?

2. General impressions of CSULB
   a. Quality of facilities and support services (e.g., classrooms, secretarial help, resources necessary for scholarship/research)
      (1) excellent
      (2) good
      (3) average
      (4) poor
      Elaborate on why.

b. (1) Initial impressions of colleagues and/or other faculty
helpful and supportive: very much somewhat not very
Any examples?

(2) Initial impressions of administrators
helpful and supportive: very much somewhat not very
Any examples?

c. What sort of advice, if any, have you received from colleagues? (solicited or unsolicited)

d. What is your impression of your colleagues' attitudes toward CSULB? What do they say are the good and bad points of their work lives here?

e. Do you anticipate collaborating in research and/or coteaching courses with any colleagues? (Probe for specific plans.)

f. In general, how important is a positive sense of collegiality to your own sense of well-being and job satisfaction?
very important somewhat important not very important

g. What factors do you view as of particular importance in facilitating your personal growth and development as a university professor? What have been your most positive experiences so far?

h. Have you had any negative experiences or incidents so far (e.g., broken promises, interpersonal conflict, etc.)? Source of negative experience: department chair, colleagues, administrators, other.

i. Initial impressions of quality of students.
How do students here compare to those on other campuses with which you are familiar?

3. Self-Assessment of Teaching Philosophy and Skills

a. Could you briefly describe your teaching philosophy? What are the values which guide your approach to classroom teaching, your expectations of yourself and students?

b. How would you characterize the qualities of the best teachers you have known?

c. At this point, what do you believe are your major strengths and weaknesses as a teacher?

d. At this point, what do you believe are your major strengths and weaknesses in terms of being a productive scholar?

e. In general, how would you describe yourself as a college professor?
I am . . .

4. Time Management

In general what percentages of your time do you expect to devote to:

	Actual	*Ideal*
classroom teaching		
advising/consulting with students		
research/scholarship		
community service		

	Actual	*Ideal*
university service		
teaching preparation		
other		

Ideally, would you devote more or less time to these activities?
What are other demands on your time? (family, etc.)

5. Professional Development

What are your immediate goals (this semester)?
Long term?
In what way could the Center for Faculty Development most benefit you in your professional and/or personal development?
Any particular programs or services that you would like to see offered?

APPENDIX B

New Faculty Interview Schedule B
(administered at end of second semester for new faculty)

1. Teaching:

   a. Number of separate course preparations during first year: _____
   b. Size of classes taught: (1-14) = _____
      (15-34) = _____
      (35-99) = _____
      (100+) = _____
   c. Overall student evaluations of courses were:
      (1) excellent _____ (2) good _____ (3) satisfactory _____
      (4) fair _____ (5) poor _____
   d. Compared to other instructors in your department, how did students rate your overall effectiveness as a teacher?
      (1) one of the most effective _____
      (2) more effective than most _____
      (3) about average _____
      (4) not as effective as most _____
      (5) one of the least effective _____
   e. Overall level of personal satisfaction with teaching performance during first year:
      extremely dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 extremely satisfied

2. Collegiality:

   a. Overall quality of interpersonal relationship amongst members of your department:
      (1) excellent ____ (2) good ____ (3) satisfactory ____
      (4) fair ____ (5) poor ____
   b. Overall level of professional competence in your department:
      (1) excellent ____ (2) good ____ (3) satisfactory ____
      (4) fair ____ (5) poor ____

c. Overall performance of chairperson in your department:
(1) excellent ____ (2) good ____ (3) satisfactory ____
(4) fair ____ (5) poor ____

d. Overall level of intellectual companionship you have experienced here at CSULB?
(1) excellent ____ (2) good ____ (3) satisfactory ____
(4) fair ____ (5) poor ____

e. Found a mentor yet? yes ____ no ____

f. Extent to which above factors (i.e., personal and professional qualities of colleagues, access to intellectual companionship) have affected your own performance:
(1) extremely important ____ (2) somewhat important ____
(3) not important ____

3. Work Environment:

a. In general, where are you most likely to do the following kinds of work, at home or your office?

(1) Preparing lectures or other materials for your classes:
Home ____ Work ____

(2) Grading exams, homework, or term papers:
Home ____ Work ____

(3) Professional reading:
Home ____ Work ____

(4) Writing:
Home ____ Work ____

(probe "why?" for preferences)

b. Approximately how many hours per week are you actually on campus?

c. How similar is CSULB to school you attended as an undergraduate?
(1) very similar____ (2) somewhat similar ____
(3) very dissimilar ____

d. How similar is CSULB to school you attended as a graduate student?
(1) very similar ____ (2) somewhat similar ____
(3) very dissimilar ____

e. Which is closest to your ideal of what an academic environment should be -which do you identify with most?
(1) undergraduate institution ____ (2) graduate institution ____
(3) CSULB ____

f. To what extent have your experiences as a professor here at CSULB been congruent with what you expected?

(1) exactly what I expected, no surprises at all ____

(2) a few things were different from what I expected, nothing major or significant ____ (probe)

(3) there were a few major surprises, things that did not turn out the way I expected ____ (probe)

(4) it's been very different from what I expected ____ (probe)

g. Overall, how would you characterize your general level of busyness during your first year at CSULB?

(1) extremely busy, perhaps the most busy I've ever been in my life ____

(2) very busy, never seem to get caught up, a source of stress ____

(3) somewhat busy, but manageable, no major anxieties or concerns about it ____

(4) not all that busy ____

(probe for elaboration of response, examples, etc.)

h. Considering everything you've experienced in your first year at CSULB, how would you rate your overall level of job satisfaction?

extremely dissatisfied; would like to leave — 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 — extremely satisfied; it's exactly what I want to be doing

i. (as relevant) There was a series of workshops offered for new faculty this spring. Could you tell my why you did not participate in any of them?

(1) too busy ____ (2) time conflict with other activities ____

(3) didn't know about them ____ (4) didn't find them relevant or interesting ____ (5) other _____

4. Scholarly accomplishments this year:

a. Papers presented at professional conferences/conventions, etc.

b. Papers submitted for publication:

c. Papers published or accepted for publication:

d. Papers in progress/expected time of completion and submission.

e. Writing plans for immediate future (i.e., over summer, etc.):

f. Research proposals submitted:

g. Overall level of personal satisfaction with scholarly accomplishments during first year:

extremely dissatisfied — 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 — extremely satisfied

APPENDIX C

New Faculty Interview Schedule C
(administered during the third semester for new faculty)

Professional activities during the summer:

1. Teaching: Yes ____ No ____ NOTES:
2. Professional reading: Yes ____ No ____ NOTES:
3. Scholarly writing for publication: Yes ____ No ____ NOTES:
4. Other scholarly/research work (collect and analyze date, etc.) NOTES:
5. Prepare syllabi, lecture notes, etc. for fall semester: Yes ____ No ____ NOTES:

On a ten-point scale, rate extent to which you achieved your goals for summer:

didn't achieve any 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *achieved all*

At this time, how would you rate your personal level of overall satisfaction/dissatisfaction with:

extremely dissatisfied *extremely satisfied*

The quality of students here at CSULB

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Your teaching load

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Your own teaching performance

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The level of support and encouragement you have received from the university for scholarship/research

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Your own scholarly/research accomplishments and productivity

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The level of professionalism and commitment to academic excellence in your department

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The attitudes and behaviors of senior colleagues toward new young faculty

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The performance of your chairperson

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

To date, has anyone here at CSULB assumed an ongoing role as professional mentor to you? colleague ____; chairperson ____; assoc. dean/dean____, other____; no one____

So far, what has been the most personally rewarding and satisfactory aspect of your professional life here at CSULB?

So far, what has been the most disappointing or dissatisfactory aspect of your professional life here at CSULB?

What are your major goals this academic year with respect to:

Teaching:

Research/scholarship:

Other:

What is your best estimate of the percentage of your work time you will be devoting to research/scholarship in the course of this academic year?

How many hours per week actually writing (drafts of papers for publication, etc.)?

How will writing time be distributed (daily, weekends, etc.)?

How many hours per week collecting/analyzing data?

How many hours per week reading/reviewing literature in specialty area?

APPENDIX D
New Faculty Rating Tracking Sheet

Name _____ Date _____ Time _____ Location ____

TEACHING CATEGORIES:

CC	Classroom comfort
EN	Enthusiasm
H	Humor (frequency)
I/Q	Interactions/questions
MS	Management strategies
OC	Organizational clarity and preparedness
P	Pacing
P/R	Previews/reviews
R/CS	Rapport/communication skills
S	Spontaneity
SA	Student attentiveness/task engagement
SM	Switch made from theory to application, abstract to concrete
TD	Talking down

GENERAL OBSERVATION CATEGORIES:

A	Advocacy (frequency)
C	Complaints (frequency)
D	Disclosiveness
EG	Energy
EJ	Enjoyment
FR	Friendliness

RS	Reactivity/suspicion
SW	Spontaneous ref to scholarly writing
ST	Spontaneous ref to teaching
SC	Spontaneous ref to colleagues
BO	Burnout

Note: Except when frequency tabulations are indicated, items are rated on a scale of 1 (lowest) to 10 (highest).

APPENDIX E

New Faculty Self-Tracking Sheet (Robert Boice & Jim Turner)

Code name _____ Dates _____ to _____

Code: for time arrows (please indicate work off campus *parenthetically*)

B = break
C = collegial interaction
CM = committee meeting
G = grading
L = lecture
O = office hour
Ph = phone
P = prep. for lecture ____ = _____
R = research/ creative work ____ = _____
SR = scholarly reading ____ = _____
SW = scholarly writing ____ = _____
SS = socializing with students
SF = socializing with faculty

Code for rating *intensity & enjoyment*: 1 = least 10 = most

Day/ Date	*Hour of Work Day* 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Sun Date: _____										
2 Mon Date: _____										
3 Tues Date: _____										
4 Wed Date: _____										
5 Thur Date: _____										
6 Fri Date: _____										
7 Sat Date: _____										

Patterns of Successful Faculty Career Change: A Study of Career Transition Within the University

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In a survey of 4200 faculty members at 160 universities in 1977, Patton and Palmer (1981) indicated that more than 25 percent of faculty members in American universities and colleges seriously considered leaving academic life permanently, and 32 percent would be equally or more satisfied outside academe. Taylor (1982) later confirmed that educators, by personal choice or necessity, were making a steadily increasing number of career changes.

Not every faculty member however, can change his or her career as desired. A Ph.D. holder in economics, for example, may find it difficult to obtain a position in a business department. Moving to another university, especially in a tenured position is also unlikely. Academic budget stringencies cause universities to hire young Ph.D.'s who are available in large numbers rather than to recruit higher-salaried tenured faculty members. Therefore, many faculty must remain in positions, even though their career interests have changed.

In order to increase productivity and maintain professional growth of faculty members as well as to keep quality faculty members from leaving the university, opportunities for successful career change within the university must be provided. Opportunities within the institution certainly may help all faculty members, but especially tenured members, who are looking for a new challenge or who experience program uncertainty or

other, personal, problems, but at the same time may wish to remain in teaching.

Unfortunately, very little information is available about patterns of successful career change. Such information would be helpful to faculty who want to change their careers within the university. Furthermore, very few studies have investigated the process of career change—why, when and how career change takes place.

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to discover patterns of successful faculty career change by looking at the process of change from the beginning to end. The purpose was not to test specific hypotheses or to predict or find cause-effect sequences of faculty career change. Rather the attempt was to thoroughly understand the phenomena of faculty career change and possible patterns of the change that might emerge from the study.

Twenty five faculty members who were serving comprehensive, private and public universities across the United States and who had made a successful change within the same university were interviewed. All of the interviewees' names were given by university administrators. They were volunteers and were still teaching within the same university through the interview period, which was July 1984 through April 1985. The interviews were indepth and face-to-face. Only data from the 15 successful faculty career changers who met the criteria of the study were included in this study. These were: their changes involved moving from one area of specialization to another and their taped interviews were sufficiently complete to be transcribed.

The methods of phenomenological investigation (Giorgi, 1979; Spiegelberg, 1965) have been used in this research. In order to approach the experiences of the subjects naively, the researchers did not review the literature on career transition until all protocols were analyzed and essential meanings of each protocol had been revealed.

MAJOR THEMES

For faculty in this study, career change was a critical event that led them to experience a new version of professional life—one that was a step toward greater security, growth and vigor in

their professions. Career change typically resulted in feelings of hope, growth, enjoyment, as well as a more challenging and exciting professional life to the changer. However, the change also brought frustration, uncertainty, risk, discomfort and feelings of loss to the changers during the time of the actual transitional period. Change was an interactive process that affected not only the changers themselves but also the university, both old and new departments and colleagues, friends, family, as well as other persons involved in the process of change.

Six essential themes emerged from the experience of faculty career changers. These essential themes may be described as follows:

Theme 1: Background and Characteristics of the Changers

Before the transition, the changers in our study held various academic degrees ranging from the master degree to doctoral degree, and academic ranks from instructor to professor. Most, however, had doctoral degrees and held the rank of full professor with tenure.

Changers offered various reasons for choosing their first areas of specialization or training, including special interests, scholastic awards, and desire to participate in the growth and advancement of the field. In addition to their areas of specialization, changers consistently had interest and experience in some other field, expressed through hobbies, previous work, consulting, research, and other avocational pursuits. Many career changers were interdisciplinary-oriented by training or work experiences.

Changers were typically liberal, flexible and sometimes aggressive. They had strong determination and had high intellectual ability and energy. They consistently looked for new opportunities and challenging work. They viewed career life as dynamic.

Theme 2: Factors that Influence the Change

The changers often left their former careers because they felt or found that their careers gave them less security and fewer opportunities to grow professionally. Forces of change could be classified into three types: 1) direct external force, 2) indirect

force, 3) voluntary self-directed force.

Type 1 changers were directly forced to change, whether willing or not. They had to leave their former position if they wanted to remain within the university. It usually was an unplanned and immediate change caused, for example, by program reorganization or budget cut.

Type 2 changers were indirectly forced to change their careers. Although they were in no danger of losing their jobs, the working environment was unsatisfactory in some way. Dissatisfaction most often originated at the department level. Typical sources were problems of promotion or conflict with colleagues.

Type 3 changers left their original career areas voluntarily. Their careers may have been still promising and growing, and their promotion and security were still assured. However, their areas of interest had shifted. Reasons for change usually were personal rather than the result of the working environment.

None of the influences, either personal or those related to work, however, independently caused the changers to switch careers. Rather, it was the interaction among influences that caused the change.

Theme 3: Choice of Career Area

Faculty used various methods to acquire information relevant to their career paths. These methods included assessment of their own aptitudes, exploration of the status and prestige associated with areas of personal interest, personal assessment of abilities and interest in various areas, as well as survey of available positions and investigation of conditions of acceptance and support in new areas. Changers also considered opportunities to advance in the new area, as well as urging from colleagues and family to change careers.

During the survey and decision-making period, changers often felt excited, fearful, at risk, and uncertain about the change, and they sometimes hesitated to make the final decision. Some changers, however, were certain about their direction and were confident in making the move.

Three criteria guided the decision process: personal interest, perceived advantages of the new career, and possibilities for success. Some changers emphasized only one or two criteria while others considered them all.

Theme 4: Support for and Barriers to the Change

Some influences supported and other influences discouraged the changers in their decision to make a change. These influences were classified into five levels, beginning with the changers personally and extending to the university influence.

The changer. Being a tenured professor or being very competent in the previous career made a given career change easier. Changers that were tenured generally made a change with little or no concern about a subsequent promotion. Acceptance and respect given by new colleagues supported the changers greatly in their effort toward academic and social adjustment in the new career. Besides their status and competence, the changers' willingness to change was the most important motivator to a successful change.

The changers also considered family support as a desperately needed requisite to the successful change. The changers' lack of trust in informal education, on the other hand, was a barrier that negatively affected their confidence to change. As long as the changers suspected the validity of knowledge gained from informal education, they lacked confidence in making the change.

Colleagues and friends. The support and stimulation to change given by colleagues and friends helped changers to feel confident about the change and to process subsequent growth. In contrast, resistance from new colleagues certainly caused uncomfortable feelings in the changers. This resistance diminished the quality of the working climate and inhibited changers' growth in the new career.

Department. The receiving department chair had a critical, direct impact on the changers from the inception to the end of the change. A welcoming, supportive, reasonable and flexible department chair had considerable influence on the changer's decision to change and on the success of the change. As a professional in the field, the department chair could acquaint the changer with the new area and offer facilities and opportunities required to provide an environment conducive to work.

In contrast, unwillingness of the new department chair to accept a changer for any reason clearly discouraged him or her from considering a particular career move. Changers certainly did not want to move into a position where they were not wanted. Similarly, unwillingness of the changer's original

department chair to allow the move (because of the loss this constituted to his or her department) prolonged the move.

University. The type of university support that facilitated changes included recognition of the change, funding, provisions for auditing courses, decreased workloads and released time. In contrast to older more established institutions, newer and more recently established universities often had flexible systems which facilitated the changes more easily.

The university's understanding and acceptance of the career change was also an important source of support, helping changers feel more secure in freely processing their changes in accordance with their needs. The possibility of success, therefore, was high when such acceptance was present.

External support to the university context. Scholarships, financial support and training programs outside the university were also very helpful to the changers. Furthermore, examples of role models or of well organized career change programs that the changers observed either inside or outside the university also helped them prepare for new careers more easily and efficiently.

Theme 5: Processes of Transition

The process of career change included four types of adjustment during the transitional process: physical, intellectual, social and psychological adjustments. The physical adjustment refers to the process of moving oneself physically from one working environment to another. The physical transition consisted of four steps: (1) Time setting. Usually a specific event, such as receiving tenure or learning of a university policy that supported faculty career redirection, triggered the decision as to when to move. (2) Initiating. Physical changes could be initiated either by administrators or by the changers themselves. The person who initiated the transition always had an important function in managing, organizing and pushing the transition toward identified goals. (3) Negotiating. Changers, relevant department chairs, and university administrators inevitably spent time negotiating such questions as the transfer of tenure, promotion, salary, welfare benefits, academic preparation, support, the steps involved in moving, work loads, and so on. (4) Moving. The changers began to move after negotiations

were completed. Usually there were two phases of moving: temporary and permanent. A probation period helped the changers test and confirm their real needs, interests, and determination to remain in their new career. This phase was followed by a decision to remain permanently.

Intellectual adjustments included redirection, expansion, integration, change, and retraining intellectual skills in another area of interest. Intellectual transition required either formal or informal learning, and sometimes both.

Finally, faculty found they needed to make social and psychological adjustments during the transition process. The transition period was an exciting, confusing and frustrating time during which career changers experienced feelings of both loss and gain. Changers found excitement and challenge in their new careers, which motivated them to learn more. At the same time they had to confront living and performing a new role in a new and different work environment.

Theme 6: Life After the Change

The changers found many alterations in their professional and personal lives after the career transition. Alterations in professional life included changes in academic work, promotion, professional status, working environment and collegial relationships. Changers' personal lives were also altered, including ways of thinking, personal style and use of leisure time.

Generally, the changers claimed success in their new careers. They were pleased with the choices they had made; they felt they had a "new lease" on life and that the new career was more attractive, challenging and exciting than the old. Changers developed a broader view of knowledge and understood more about events going on around them. They were able to work and to grow professionally, with a hopeful future. Even though some faculty lost their department seniority or felt uncomfortable with some new colleagues and different administrative systems, most were not overly troubled. They enjoyed their new careers and did not seriously consider leaving academic life as long as they would be allowed to grow or to pursue their interests. Most of them felt the process of change continuing throughout their work. Some wished for temporary leaves of absence in order to get direct experience outside the

university so that they could return as better teachers. Most found their new careers to be ideal and did not anticipate changing careers again unless their situations changed and began to inhibit their growth.

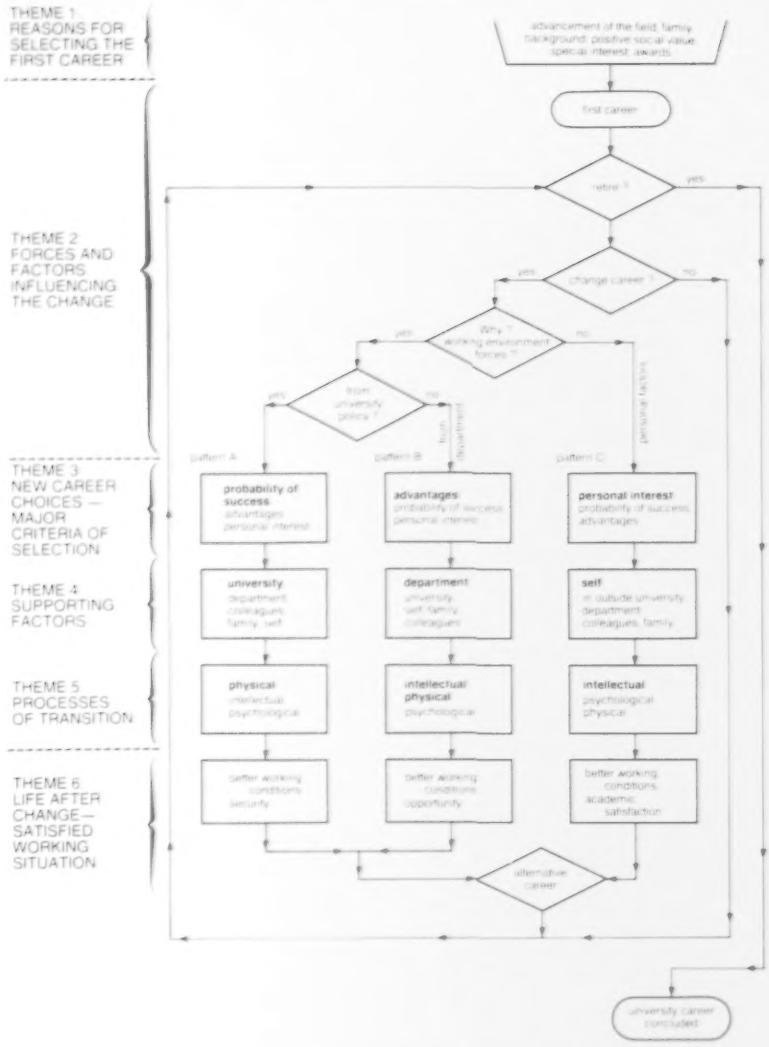
PATTERNS OF SUCCESSFUL FACULTY CAREER TRANSITION

From analysis of the experiences of these faculty career changers and the relationships among the essential themes of career change phenomena observed in this study, three patterns of the career change process emerged. These patterns were distinguished by forces and factors that influenced the change. Each pattern of career transition is described in the following section. Figure 1 summarizes the three patterns in relationship to the six themes discussed previously.

Pattern A: Institution-Initiated Change

The changers in this pattern were grouped as the 'direct-change force' group. The factors that influenced their change came primarily from the university. For example, a change in university policy or a lack of program funding may have resulted in program reorganization, or even in program termination. This situation forced the faculty member who wanted to continue teaching within the same university to seek another career.

The academic backgrounds of the changers in this pattern were not a primary factor related to the type of change. The major criterion that the changers in this group used to select a new career was the possibility of being successful in the new career. During the period of pressure and insecurity, the changers looked for a new career in an area in which they felt comfortable, accepted and welcomed. This meant that the career had to be one in which the probability of receiving support from the university and the new department was high. Certainly, each changer considered his or her interests and possible advantages of the change before selecting the new career. However, for Pattern A changers, interest and advantage were less important than the possibility of completing the change successfully.



Bold face indicates principal factors, criteria or transitions of priority as judged by the changers.

FIGURE 1: Three Emergent Patterns of Successful Faculty Career Transition

Faculty in this pattern of change (particularly those who were tenured) usually received full support from the university in the form of leaves of absence, recognition, financial assistance, and help in managing the change. The changers themselves usually sought information informally to determine the best career choices. However, most of the steps in the plan of transition were formally arranged by the university.

Since these changers were forced into the transition by the university, there was a chance the change might not afford them much prestige. Limited prestige was one of the barriers to their acceptance in the new career. A considerate department chair could improve their circumstances by attempting to understand, accept and support the changers as they assumed the new role. The chance of acceptance into the new career was improved also if the changers personally knew the department chair or some members of the academic unit into which they moved.

Generally, the changers needed all types of support from family, colleagues, department chairs, and the university. What seemed to be most significant was the need for psychological support. Families and colleagues were able to help greatly in making the change less painful and more positive.

The process of career transition was most often a formal one, managed through university administrators or through a university committee. It began with the physical transition that included timing, negotiation, planning, and moving. The actual move began either before, during or after the intellectual transition. The intellectual transition was mostly done formally. Since the changers in this type of transition had seldom prepared themselves prior to the change, taking another degree was the quickest way to gain knowledge in the new area. When the new career was in a far different area from the previous one, a master's degree in the new area was usually acceptable. If the new area was related to the previous one, the changers might pursue a doctorate.

During the time of physical and intellectual transition, it was equally important for the changers to process social and psychological transitions simultaneously. Psychological and academic support from colleagues helped changers a great deal in confronting the problems that emerged as they grew professionally in the new career.

Changers who successfully processed their intellectual

transition and social adjustment were able to adapt satisfactorily to the associated changes in life-style and responsibilities. Intellectual and social adaptation allowed these individuals to reestablish themselves in a new work setting within the same university, and to feel comfortable in their new careers.

Pattern B: Situation-Initiated Change

The changers in this pattern often left their careers because of an indirect change force. Factors that caused the change came primarily from the immediate working environment: the department, program, colleagues or characteristics of the individual's assignment. For example, change might be prompted by a change of administrators, a non-congenial department chair and/or colleagues, declining student enrollement in the program, lack of advanced teaching and research opportunities or unavailability of tenure-track positions. Occasionally, personal factors such as family influences were instrumental. Although changers could continue working in the same career, they did not feel comfortable in an unsatisfactory or insecure situation. They felt that a better choice was to leave the former career for a new opportunity and a new challenge.

The backgrounds and characteristics of changers in this pattern were not much different from Pattern A. Pattern B faculty wanted to grow, to do substantial work and to gain more recognition, rather than remain in what for them had been an unproductive working climate.

The major criterion used to select a new career tended to be advantages the changers perceived that would accrue from the change, such as greater opportunities, more substantial and advanced work, opportunities for private practice and consultation, a better work situation or a tenured appointment. As with Pattern A changers, faculty in Pattern B also considered personal interests and potential for success as criteria for the best career choices. However, they viewed these latter criteria as no more significant than the advantages they sought from the changes.

The changers in this pattern may or may not have received support from the university, depending on the choice of new career. If their new career choices were compatible with university needs and policies, changers received full support from the

university. Otherwise, they received little or no support. Conversely, some changers viewed university support as an important factor that would help them make the transition successfully. Therefore, they chose a new career that served the university's needs and policies in order to get support for the change. In this case, the possibility of success seemed to be more important to them than their personal interest.

Regardless of the criteria used, changers tended to receive support from their departments. Situation-initiated changers usually had already started to prepare themselves prior to making a physical move. They studied the possibility of acceptance by the new department chair and colleagues, and the availability of certain career opportunities. Some participated in professional activities within one or more of the career options, or took a few courses in order to survey the status of these possible careers and to assess their interest in those choices of careers. Their curiosity and ability to contribute to the field, therefore, were already evident to the new colleagues and they were recognized as potentially valuable contributors. As a result, gaining support was easier, especially when the department needed more faculty in that particular area.

The process of transition was either formal or informal. In the instance when changers responded to the needs of the university, the process of transition tended to be managed formally by the university. That is, it was done in accordance with a plan negotiated with university administrators or with a university committee. Typical support was financial support for academic preparation in the new career and full or partial leave.

However, when the new career did not serve the immediate needs and policies of the university, changers typically conducted the transitions by themselves, from initiation of change to the intellectual transition. A formal agreement about the actual move was certainly needed, but this only occurred after personal contact, which normally began at the department chair level, was made. The formal agreement for change was made between the previous and the new department chairs, with university approval.

The process of intellectual transition began either before or during the physical move. However, most changers who had been experiencing dissatisfaction in the previous career for some time typically made intellectual preparation prior to the time

everything was in place and they felt ready to make a move. Some changers even had finished the process of intellectual transition before the physical transition took place or was completed.

The process of intellectual transition could result from formal or informal learning. If the new career was totally different from the previous one, completing another degree was necessary, most often at the masters level. If the new career developed from the changer's interests, the change was usually carried out through informal classes, self-study, personal research, in workshops or through other related professional activities. These informal learning activities continued even after the physical transition had taken place. Some changers had little or no confidence in the validity of informal learning; consequently, they temporarily felt uncomfortable and at risk in their new careers. This uneasiness in turn was a barrier to their psychological adjustment and intellectual development as well in the new career.

Acceptance and support from new department chairs and colleagues assisted greatly in making intellectual, psychological and social adjustments. Although the need for support from both spouse and university was evident, support from either of these sources was not perceived as needed to the degree that was true for changers in Pattern A, Institution-initiated change.

Changers in Pattern B were satisfied simply if they were able to do more challenging work under stable conditions. Because of the change their responsibilities often changed greatly. Most of them were able to do more research and teach advanced courses or assume responsibility for new, challenging administrative work. Even though some of the changers felt uneasy with the working environment in the new department, this was not a deterrent as long as they experienced professional growth in the new area.

Changers found their career life more interesting after the change and some felt the new career was less complicated and more enjoyable than the previous one. For example, the faculty member that moved from music to business found more personal free time in evenings and on weekends without required attendance at recitals and performances.

Pattern C: Self-Initiated Change

Changers in Pattern C were those who indicated a willingness to change careers. Apparently no working situation served as a major factor influencing the change. Rather, the change force was self-initiated, based upon a shift of interest.

There were two types of shifts in interest. One type of shift was to an interest area which broadened knowledge. Changers who made this type of shift were those who apparently had pursued their real interests in the first career, had achieved their goal of tenure and/or promotion to full professor and subsequently desired to expand their knowledge to another field. Intellectual curiosity caused this change. New interests, however, did not just happen; they often germinated for a period before they began their physical transition. Such interests mostly related or were applicable to their former careers.

The second type of interest shift was to pursue a long-term interest other than the one that had been chosen originally for a career. These changers lost interest in their first career shortly after they began working in it. The new interest actually emerged from an original one that was not chosen as the first career. They pursued the earlier interest through avenues such as hobbies, avocations or private consultation. Once changers felt confident about new career skills, they were thus able to pursue the new career without concern about previous achievement. The need to pursue their real interests was more significant than previous achievement.

When compared with faculty in the first two patterns, Self-initiated changers seemed to have a greater desire to learn new things, to broaden their knowledge and to attend to professional growth. This of course may be the result of having the opportunity to express their interests without risk of losing a job.

For faculty in Pattern C the major criterion used to select the new career was certainly their personal interest. They considered the possibility of success and advantages of career change before making an actual move, but success or advantage were not as important as their personal interest.

Changers in this pattern were very conscious of their interests. They had been seeking and developing knowledge in their real interest areas for several years. The process of acquiring new career knowledge mostly involved informal learning

including self-study, classes, and workshops or seminar participation. In some instances, Pattern C faculty offered courses that related to the new area as a teaching experiment; or they conducted research, presented papers at professional conferences and discussed their new subjects with other professionals in the new career field. Another degree was not required in order to move to the new career.

Changers began to make the physical move when they felt they were well prepared—when their knowledge and competence in the new career was evident and accepted by the professionals around them. As a result, when the actual move was made, Pattern C changers typically received respect and recognition from the new department chair and colleagues. Recognition and respect from colleagues were the primary support that helped these changers grow professionally. Furthermore, because their previous work was accepted in the new field before the physical transition, these changers tended to receive financial support from the university, especially if the change served the mission and needs of the university. One changer also received support from a professional association outside the university.

In conclusion, Self-initiated changers usually helped themselves gain academic competence in the new career before the physical move. Support from others, especially from the new career department, most often came later. In Pattern C, the process of transition began with an intellectual transition, followed by a physical transition.

Psychological and social transitions took place throughout the physical transition. The psychological and social transitions that were made prior to the physical transition usually assisted the faculty members with the intellectual transition and helped establish relationships between the changers and new colleagues. The psychological and social adjustments that were made after the physical move often helped the changers adjust themselves to the working environment in the new career and to the loss of tenure.

These changers had already experienced new career lives before the physical move; therefore, their attitudes toward their new careers were already positive and their career life-styles changed very little after the transition. What they really experienced after the shift in career was a change of their social

relationships—new colleagues and working environments. The changers in this pattern were satisfied with the new career because they were able to pursue their real interests.

DISCUSSION

These findings suggest that both internal and external factors influence faculty career changers. However, faculty in this study did not view money as a major influence. Many changers stated that the quality of life was more important than money. They were also satisfied with academic life and did not want to leave it.

These faculty career changers shared characteristics such as open-mindedness, flexibility, creativity and intellectual ability. Strong determination and enthusiasm were also important characteristics which contributed to the success of change.

These findings indicate that career change decision making is a dynamic process; persons move forward and backward through the decision-making stages as they experience the situation at hand. The changers in this study analyzed information about their situation in a variety of ways. They tried to understand the nature of potential careers and their own possibility of success; and they reflected and reconsidered many times before making a decision. The decision was based on a combination of criteria for each individual, revealing the complex, multidimensional and dynamic nature of faculty career change.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The knowledge gained from this study is relevant for potential faculty career changers, university administrators, and faculty development personnel. The study offers insight regarding possible difficulties and barriers to transition. With this awareness potential faculty career changers may be able to prepare themselves appropriately for the change, using the model to help themselves anticipate problems they may experience. Furthermore, changers may be able to plan career change strategies more deliberately, based on these findings. For example, they may be better able to determine the time to move, what to be concerned about in negotiating the change and how to gain acceptance in the new career.

Results of career change that can contribute significantly to the academic growth of faculty and development of the whole university are also important. For example, program development can result when faculty members receive assistance in extending their competencies and expanding their career choices. By moving across disciplines, faculty can create new interdisciplinary experiences for students. On the other hand, prohibiting or resisting faculty career change may result in reduced faculty productivity, ineffective decision making, and inappropriate responses to stress. Instead, universities can choose to be constructively supportive. For example, faculty career change might be legitimized by providing career development programs, improving career change policies and streamlining transition procedures.

From this study, faculty members who decide to remain in their academic careers may learn how they can successfully redirect their efforts to renew their professional lives. They can learn of the possibilities for change and how to move through change appropriately. Furthermore, this study may help faculty members understand the importance of supporting colleagues who are changing or redirecting their careers. Finally, a better understanding of this phenomenon should assist career counselors and faculty development facilitators in providing more relevant and useful information as well as support for their clients.

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PART III: CONCEPTUALIZATIONS Models for Program Planning

In this section, we present a spectrum of articles illustrating professional and organizational development practice informed by the theory, research, and methodology of many disciplines. These articles share a theme that characterizes our organization as well as emerging thought in many of the disciplines from which we borrow: the value of collaborative action as a vehicle for improving teaching and enhancing program effectiveness.

We begin with John Bailiff and Susan Kahn's description of a system-level program designed to meet the needs of faculty in diverse institutions. Much of the program's success stems from its capacity to foster interinstitutional exchanges within a single state. Our second article, by Robert Menges, explores the potential for collab rative activity between faculty colleagues in the service of teaching improvement; this paper draws on staff development research in public schools as well as higher education literature. The collaborative theme continues in Elizabeth McDaniel's description of a program that engages faculty in a common search for characteristics of good teaching, then encourages them to help each other discover and develop those characteristics in their own work. Like teaching, professional writing is often through of as a solitary activity, one that is often assumed to be beyond the domain of faculty development programs. Challenging these assumptions, Bob Boice and Jim Turner describe how faculty developers can reduce the

isolation of writing and help faculty become more productive scholars.

"Staying close to the customer" is the theme of the final two articles in this section. Many faculty development programs offer workshops as a major strategy for reaching faculty, but too often such workshops seem to reach only a select few who participate in anything and everything the office chooses to present. Reaching the less innovative, involved faculty member is the challenge tackled by Linda Hilsen, Rusty Wadsworth, and Judith Cohen. Their approach draws on marketing theory to insure a good fit between faculty needs and program offerings. Finally, we present Ann Ferren and Kay Mussell's description of a collaborative approach to evaluation of an entire faculty development program. Faculty participation in such an evaluation is consistent with current management theories that stress customer contact; it also provides a vehicle for faculty ownership of the program, since faculty participants interpret results and incorporate them into program planning.

The University and the Rediscovery of Teaching: A System-Level Model

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In the recent report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America*, Dr. Ernest Boyer concludes that undergraduate education today is in a "troubled" condition. One source of the trouble, according to the findings cited in the report, lies in the emphasis upon research and professional training--and the corresponding de-emphasis on undergraduate education -- that has come to dominate our universities and faculties. According to this argument, generations of training graduate students to engage exclusively in research and of tenuring those faculty members who devote themselves chiefly to scholarship have contributed to the inadequacy of the education we now offer most of our undergraduate students.

College and university governing boards and state legislatures have reacted to the current sense of crisis in undergraduate education by increasing their demands for the measurement and evaluation of teaching and learning. But such measures, however well-intentioned, are unlikely to lead to real improvement unless they are supplemented by a genuine effort within the universities themselves to restore teaching to its place as the central focus of the university's enterprise. Within the University of Wisconsin System, such an effort has been spearheaded during the past ten years by the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Council (UTIC).

A STATEWIDE PROJECT

UTIC differs from campus-level instructional development centers such as the one at the University of Washington described by Jody Nyquist in last year's edition of *To Improve the Academy*. Staff in such centers typically function as consultants to departments and individual faculty members seeking solutions to specific curricular or pedagogical problems. Some centers also conduct orientations for new faculty members, maintain libraries of instructional resource materials, and provide other direct services to their faculties.

By contrast, UTIC functions at the system level as an advocate for undergraduate teaching improvement and as an administrative unit that proposes, plans and coordinates systemwide teaching improvement and faculty development initiatives. Its purview includes not only such primarily research-oriented institutions as the UW-Madison and the UW-Milwaukee, but also eleven four-year campuses and thirteen two-year centers whose missions focus explicitly on undergraduate education.

As UTIC's programs, funding levels and visibility within the UW System have grown over the course of its history, it has become increasingly effective in its role of focusing faculty and administrative attention on the university's teaching mission. Accordingly, we are convinced that UTIC and its programs represent a viable model for state university systems committed to improving the quality of undergraduate education. The brief history of UTIC provided below is intended to illuminate how a successful and multifaceted program evolved from a modest grant program initiated sixteen years ago.

THE UNDERGRADUATE TEACHING IMPROVEMENT GRANT PROGRAM

In 1971, the University of Wisconsin set aside funds of $180,000 to create the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant Program. The first grants were awarded in the 1971-72 academic year. The program continued after the 1973 merger of the primarily undergraduate system of Wisconsin State Universities with the doctoral campuses of the University of Wisconsin in Madison and Milwaukee; this merger formed the present University of Wisconsin, a centrally administered system of thirteen universities, thirteen two-year centers, and an extension service.

Over the years since the inception of the grant program, the number and variety of proposals has continued to grow. In most years, twenty to twenty-five proposals are funded from among up to sixty submissions to the System Grant Review Committee. Over its sixteen-year history, the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant Program has provided over 500 system faculty members, representing virtually every academic discipline, with an opportunity to try out innovative teaching ideas, to experiment with educational applications of new technologies, and to work with faculty members on other UW campuses to develop new programs for improving teaching and learning. Grant recipients are required to present the results of their projects to other system faculty members and to make any products of the grant available to their colleagues throughout the system; these requirements help to ensure that as many faculty members and students as possible will benefit from successful grant projects.

A particularly valuable feature of the grant program has been a special category of grants that permits institutions to apply for funds to create campus centers for teaching improvement and instructional development. Several campuses have taken advantage of this opportunity. The UW-Milwaukee's Center for the Improvement of Instruction (CII), in operation since 1981, continues to offer new programs and services to a growing clientele. The CII's recent projects include training programs for foreign teaching assistants and an annual orientation for all new instructional staff. Last year, it hosted a regional conference on cooperative learning techniques, which grew out of a seminar offered to UTIC's Faculty College. The UW-Whitewater's Teaching Enhancement Center (TEC), founded with an Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant in 1984, offers numerous workshops each year on such topics as grant writing, testing and grading, interactive teaching, and critical thinking. The TEC's lunchtime series, "Talking on Teaching," provides regular opportunities for faculty members across disciplines to discuss teaching issues of mutual concern.

The Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant program has had other important results. The campus screening committees originally established to review grant proposals at the campus level have in many cases expanded their roles to include other faculty development and teaching improvement activities.

Many Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant projects have served as models for programs on other campuses, both within and outside the system, while in other cases, grant recipients have gone on to win extramural grants to continue or expand programs begun with Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grants. The grant program also offers reward and recognition for faculty members awarded grants; on most campuses in the system, Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grants are now routinely considered in promotion and tenure decisions. Finally, the grant program provides a valuable first experience in proposal writing for many junior faculty members in the system.

Indeed, one testimony to the success of the grants is that, despite tight budgets throughout the UW System, funding for the program has been substantially increased for the 1987-1988 academic year. The additional funds will be used to create a new category of matching grants designed to permit faculty to attract extramural funds for teaching improvement and curricular development into the system.

THE UNDERGRADUATE TEACHING IMPROVEMENT COUNCIL

As the grant program became increasingly popular, the interchange among campus grant review committees, system review committees, grant recipients and other faculty began to afford a voice and a forum for the many UW faculty members engaged primarily in undergraduate instruction. This growing interest in undergraduate teaching led in 1977 to the formation of a new group, the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Council. Composed of one faculty and one administrative representative appointed for three-year terms from each institution of the System, together with several student members, the Council is administered by a half-time Executive Director also selected for a three-year term from among interested teaching faculty. With the help of a small permanent staff provided by the UW System Office of Academic Affairs, the Council administers the grant program, disseminates the results of grant projects, and seeks new ways to address the interests and concerns of faculty teaching undergraduates.

CONFERENCES AND FACULTY COLLEGE

The first projects of the Council were conferences and workshops on undergraduate teaching issues. In most academic years, the Council sponsors two or three systemwide conferences, which are typically planned by faculty committees convened for the purpose. Recent conference topics have included issues in foreign language instruction, critical thinking, and teaching in science laboratories; upcoming conferences will focus on teaching in the fine arts, strategies for internationalizing the curriculum, the assessment of learning, and student advising. Some conferences, such as those on international education and assessment, are designed to coincide with system initiatives; others grow out of suggestions received from faculty members or proposed by Council representatives.

In addition to exposing faculty members to new teaching ideas to bring back to their classrooms and to their colleagues, the conferences play an important role in promoting systemwide collegiality. In many cases, interests generated and shared at UTIC conferences have led to formal interinstitutional cooperation among faculty members in a particular discipline. The Council encourages such cooperation by providing funds and staff support for faculty workshops, retreats, and regional meetings intended to follow up on issues raised at the systemwide conferences.

In June 1979, the Council sponsored the first Faculty College, which has since become the centerpiece of the Council's annual programs. Each year, Faculty College affords seventy to eighty faculty members the opportunity to participate in two three-day seminars on teaching issues and to engage in the intense and varied conversation about teaching that the concentrated and collegial atmosphere provides. Recent Faculty College seminars have focused on such issues as teaching writing across the curriculum, improving students' problem-solving abilities, fostering a cooperative learning environment in the classroom, planning a faculty career path and addressing the needs of the women who form the majority of our undergraduate population.

Participants in Faculty College find that the experience of the College inspires them to reflect anew on their roles as educators and the values they bring to those roles. They report that the College revives their enthusiasm for teaching,

and, at the same time, provides them with specific ideas and approaches to try out in the classroom. As in the case of the conferences, the Council provides funding for regional workshops growing out of seminars and discussions at Faculty College.

THE WISCONSIN TEACHING FELLOWS

In 1982, a proposal written by the Council's Executive Director and funded by the Lilly Foundation created a program of fellowships for young faculty that is sponsored and administered by the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Council. At the end of the three-year period of the Lilly grant, the UW System Office of Academic Affairs continued support for the project, which is now called the Wisconsin Teaching Fellows Program. Each year, up to thirty fellows are selected from among applicants in their first ten years of college teaching. They receive released time and travel funds to pursue projects related to their teaching and to convene in a Summer Institute devoted to the discussion of their work and of issues related to undergraduate teaching.

The two weeks of the institute, together with attendance at Faculty College and other conferences during the year, offer fellows an opportunity to articulate and debate conceptions of teaching and interpretations of education at an early point in their careers. In a recent report to the Lilly Foundation, the director of the program noted that fellows began their year with the usual professional and scholarly presuppositions about the importance of research projects and publishable papers. But after the experience of the institute, the fellows found the complexity and challenge of teaching itself restored to the center of their concerns; this development undoubtedly owed much to the interdisciplinary nature of the group, which encouraged fellows to go beyond narrow professional concerns and to consider teaching issues common to a wide variety of disciplines. One indication of the value of the Wisconsin Teaching Fellows Program is that a number of former fellows have gone on to win outstanding teaching awards on their campuses and to become campus leaders in faculty development and teaching improvement.

DISSEMINATION OF TEACHING IDEAS

One of the most important objectives of the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Council is to inform faculty about teaching innovations and ideas that result from grant projects, conferences, and other activities. In addition, the Council serves as an agency for communication among campuses about projects and programs concerning faculty development and teaching improvement.

UTIC achieves these aims primarily through its publications. *Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant Abstracts* summarizes the results of grant projects. *New Directions In the Classroom* is a catalogue of products that have resulted from grant projects. These products include videotapes, computer software, manuals, and other materials; they are made available to all system faculty at cost. Both publications are updated annually and can be consulted in campus libraries and departmental offices.

Twice each semester, through a newsletter called *UTIC TALK*, the Council publicizes its programs, campus teaching improvement events, and other resources. UTIC's semiannual journal, *Teaching Forum*, publishes articles on teaching by system faculty members. The intent of *Teaching Forum* is to encourage faculty to write about their teaching and about their teaching-related research. Both *UTIC TALK* and *Teaching Forum* are sent to all faculty and administrators in the system. The quality of these publications has been improved during the past two years, especially through better selection, review, and editing of papers for *Teaching Forum*. Comments from faculty and requests for additional copies for use as examples and assignments indicate that it is beginning to receive a respectful reading.

Most universities provide some awards for excellence in teaching. Faculty selected for such awards in the University of Wisconsin System are contacted by UTIC with a request for a paper on their work. The articles that result are considered for publication in *Teaching Forum*.

The programs of the Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Council now serve more than 250 teaching faculty members annually. By extension, this represents an audience of some 30,000 undergraduates each year. The Undergraduate Teaching Improvement Grant Program, administered by UTIC, annually

awards more than $210,000 in grants to faculty members seeking support for projects related to their teaching or for meetings and workshops devoted to teaching issues. Up to 30 young faculty members are selected each year as Wisconsin Teaching Fellows. To these figures must be added the many faculty members served by UTIC conferences and by the campus instructional development centers created and coordinated with the support of UTIC. In addition, all faculty and instructional staff in the system receive UTIC's newsletter and journal.

Objective assessment of the total impact of UTIC's diverse array of programs is difficult, although virtually all grant projects, conferences and other activities are evaluated individually. Perhaps the best evidence for the overall effectiveness of our programs can be found in the steadily increasing demand for the resources we offer. Grant applications and conference participation continue to grow year by year, while administrative recognition of this growth has led to substantial funding increases in recent years, in spite of tight budgets across the UW System.

Most important, the systemwide focus of UTIC has helped to make the most of scarce resources and to create an environment on the campuses that is conducive to the recognition of teaching excellence. If it is true that recognizing and rewarding good teaching leads to teaching improvement, then UTIC indeed represents an effective approach to reversing the much-publicized erosion in the quality of college education.

Colleagues as Catalysts for Change in Teaching

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Colleagues can provide potentially powerful information for improving teaching. This paper discusses ways information from colleagues might be fed back to college teachers and considers how such feedback affects subsequent teaching.

Underlying the discussion is an analogy with chemistry. This analogy compares colleagues and catalysts, reminding us of the "chemistry" between teacher and student. It implies that teacher/student "reactions" can be productively affected by the presence of a colleague. As catalyst, a colleague may speed up the reaction or otherwise alter its effect. Other features of this analogy are discussed later in the paper.

Research on feedback to teachers relies primarily on student ratings as the source of feedback information. Several studies also include information from peers or teaching specialists who serve as consultants. A meta-analysis of 30 of these studies concludes that there is a modest effect on subsequent student evaluations from student ratings feedback alone. These results show that if the average teacher receiving no feedback is at the 50th percentile, the average recipient of student ratings feedback is at the 59th percentile. The effect is enhanced considerably when student ratings are augmented with consultation and/or other forms of feedback. Under those circumstances, the average teacher's post-feedback ratings are at the 86th percentile (Menges & Brinko, 1986; see also Cohen, 1980).

Reasons for this strong consultation effect are unclear, since research reports give few details about the consultation process or about the characteristics of those who serve as consultants. In this paper I discuss colleagues and consultation, drawing on qualitative studies in postsecondary education and on conceptualizations from other fields, such as organizational behavior. The paper has five sections: the feedback seeker, the relationship between feedback giver and feedback seeker, the feedback message, the costs of consultation activities, and some programmatic issues.

THE FEEDBACK SEEKER

The more actively feedback is sought, the more effective it is likely to be. To view consultants as experts who work with "clients" is counterproductive since those terms imply dependence. Even more objectionable is the image brought to mind by a recent article whose authors describe the first step in a faculty development program as "setting up a surveillance system" (Fuller and Evans, 1985, p. 32). The term "victim" would perhaps be most appropriate in that situation.

Instead, let initiatives rest with the faculty member. As college teachers, we are naturally inclined to ask how we are doing, to scan the environment for information about the consequences of what we do, and to adjust what we do based on that information. In other words, college teachers are naturally disposed toward seeking and using feedback. That natural inclination may be easily destroyed by teaching improvement programs, however well intentioned, where participation is imposed. Such programs come to be perceived as serving purposes which are primarily institutional. Feedback then functions more as a resource for the organization than as a resource for individuals.

The active role of colleagues is conveyed by the notion of "feedback-seeking behavior" (Ashford and Cummings, 1983). To acknowledge that colleagues are active feedback seekers means dealing with them as designers of programs and of services rather than solely as objects of programs and consumers of services. Decisions about participation in teaching improvement programs then appropriately rest with the faculty member. Let us think of our faculty colleagues neither as objects

of assistance nor as recipients of services nor as clients of consultants but primarily as active feedback seekers.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FEEDBACK GIVER AND FEEDBACK SEEKER

The feedback giver/feedback seeker relationship has several dimensions. Among the most salient dimensions are expertise, companionability, and status.

The desirable level of expertise about teaching and learning which the feedback giver should have relative to the feedback seeker varies with training and experience. The feedback giver, responding to a request for feedback, may use experience and expertise in several ways: by offering precise terminology for talking about teaching and learning, by sharing new perspectives from which to view issues, and by suggesting new strategies which contribute to change. Expertise in excess is intimidating; so caution is advisable about how it is displayed and applied. While some faculty prefer the fairly formal professional relationship with a trained specialist, others prefer a close and informal relationship with a peer.

An easy, informal relationship can be especially supportive if it encourages sharing frustrations as well as successes. In their discussion of staff development for precollege teachers, Joyce, Hersh, and McKibbon (1983) note that one important function of faculty teams is to provide companionship. Companionability, at least around teaching activities, is all too rare among professors, and can open the way to greater satisfaction and stimulation from one's teaching role.

A relationship where the feedback giver is of higher status is to be avoided. One study with precollege teachers (Tuckman & Oliver, 1968) found that feedback from students improved teacher performance, but feedback from supervisors actually decreased performance. Presumably the information from students had greater credibility since students come to class more regularly than supervisors. When administrators, colleagues of more senior rank, or others involved in institutional review processes provide feedback, faculty are likely to feel threatened and their natural feedback seeking behaviors may be inhibited.

Each of these characteristics of the feedback giver/feedback

seeker relationship—expertise, companionability, and status—deserves more systematic study as part of teaching improvement programs.

THE FEEDBACK MESSAGE

What content is likely to maximize the impact of a feedback message? Research is silent on this question except for several studies where classroom interaction data comprise part of the feedback information (see for example Roland, 1983; Sorge, 1970). Each of these studies finds significantly positive impact on teaching after information about classroom interaction is fed back to college teachers. Such feedback has several distinctive qualities: interaction data are seen as precise, objective, irrefutable, and as carrying implicit prescriptions. Thought might be given to how information on other aspects of instruction might be made similarly persuasive.

It can be argued that the most valuable feedback from colleagues is not about teaching activities but rather about teaching materials such as syllabi, assignments, and examinations. No one is better able than a colleague to make knowledgeable comments about the accuracy and currency of teaching materials. The closer the colleague is to the speciality of the course, the more credible such feedback will be.

When feedback deals with teaching activities, on the other hand, a colleague's detailed knowledge of course content may hinder rather than help. Conversations tend to focus on substantive details which are less pertinent than data about teacher or student behavior. One task of colleague observers is to take the role of naive learner, but it is even more difficult for a colleague from the same discipline to assume that role than it is for one from a distant discipline.

With regard to form of the feedback message, it appears that faculty give greater credibility to information which comes in discursive form, such as student written comments, than to information reported quantitatively, such as student ratings (Ory & Braskamp, 1981; Clark & Bergstrom, 1983). Research on communicating results of program evaluations to decision makers finds that nonwritten messages (audiotaped or videotaped) are more persuasive than those which are in written form alone (Ripley, 1985).

To incorporate such findings into the teaching improvement process, a feedback giver might select student comments and present them verbally to a colleague. Of course, the selected comments must be representative and should be presented along with suggestions for change. A complete set of written comments should also be provided.

COSTS

The major cost of activities which rely on feedback from colleagues is contributed time, and that cost may translate into many dollars. Other costs are likely to be relatively low in financial terms. Ashford and Cummings (1983) distinguish three categories of costs for feedback programs in organizations: effort costs, face loss costs, and inference costs.

Effort costs depend primarily on the availability of information. Student evaluations usually carry low effort costs because they are readily available. If professors' questions about the effects of their teaching are answered by student evaluations, additional effort to seek feedback from colleagues is unlikely. On the other hand, if their questions concern matters about which colleagues are better informed than students, the effort required to seek colleagues' feedback may be seen as worthwhile. For example, if the issue is solving a teaching problem, colleagues may be able to suggest a greater variety of solutions than students can.

Costs in loss of face, that is, costs in personal embarrassment, have both objective and subjective correlates. Some faculty are objectively more vulnerable, for instance those who are nearing tenure review. They naturally want to minimize risks from any activity which may expose weaknesses; for them, loss of face costs are high. Risk of personal embarrassment also depends on less evident subjective factors. One's estimate of self-confidence and level of assertiveness are subjectively defined. The expectation that others view a request for feedback as signaling weakness is a subjective factor which raises the costs of seeking feedback. Loss of face costs are reduced or offset in proportion to the trust existing between colleagues; embarrassment can be risked with someone who is trusted. Confidentiality is also important. Consulting a colleague about teaching is less risky when that relationship is confidential and

completely separated from the institution's personnel review procedures.

Inference costs have to do with the accuracy and ease of interpretating feedback information. Teachers ordinarily receive feedback from end-of-course evaluations, occasional student comments, test scores, and so on. If these sources of information are contradictory, a colleague may be helpful in weighing and interpreting the data, thus reducing inference errors. Some information for feedback, such as classroom behavior, is almost impossible to gather while one is teaching. Using a colleague as observer and information recorder increases the amount and interpretability of such information, again reducing inference costs.

Costs in effort, loss of face, and inference are not easily budgeted, but they may be critical for program success or failure. They are also related to the reward structure for colleague consultation. Reducing any of them will likely lead to corresponding increases in the motivation of participants.

PROGRAMMATIC ISSUES

To establish colleague consultation in the best of all possible worlds, qualified faculty would volunteer and alternate in the feedback giver/feedback receiver roles. In the real world, however, a number of practical issues arise: some professors are notably better at one or both roles than others are; many are reluctant to participate; and all need some reinforcement, either intrinsic or extrinsic, if their participation is to continue. Issues of recruitment and selection, training, and incentives and rewards can be approached in a variety of ways, as illustrated by the following examples.

Three Program Examples

Pairs. An approach used at several institutions pairs faculty with one another (Katz, 1985). All participants are volunteers, but members of the pair do not necessarily come from the same department. One member visits meetings of the partner's class, and each of them interviews students in the class about their previous and current course experiences. Students complete a thinking styles inventory, the Omnibus Personality

Inventory, and some are selected to be interviewed because of the similarity or dissimilarity of their thinking styles profile with that of the instructor. The pair meets regularly to compare impressions from interviews and classroom visits. In a subsequent term, roles are reversed and the observer becomes the observed.

The greatest value of this approach seems to lie in its dramatic demonstration of the variety of students who are present in every classroom, particularly the diversity of cognitive styles and levels of development. Individual students become much more vivid to the professor. Because the activity requires a fair amount of faculty time, it is sometimes difficult to recruit participants. Once involved, however, they rarely drop out, presumably because the issues are so intellectually challenging. Some faculty realize for the first time that teaching involves intellectual puzzles as formidable as the puzzles they face in research.

Triads. Groups of three faculty were organized for feedback purposes at the University of Cincinnati and other institutions (Sweeney and Grasha, 1979). After a training session, the triad holds a meeting where each member shares two or three major goals for the class session to be observed, goals which previously had been written out. Members then determine what activities will be observed and for which behaviors feedback will be provided. Within a week after the classroom visit, the triad assembles to reconstruct events of the class meeting and to discuss both positive and critical features. The person observed then chooses problem areas to work on before the next observation. The plan calls for each member to be observed twice during the term.

This approach works best, according to the authors, when participants are volunteers, when they are carefully trained, and when someone outside the triad is responsible for monitoring the group's progress.

Teams. At Texas Tech University, faculty participate in teams which include the professor to be observed, a team leader (preferably someone with previous experience on a team), one to three other professors, and perhaps a graduate student (Skoog, 1980). The role of the observed rotates through the team as observation cycles are repeated. The preobservational conference is under the control of the person to be observed,

and the major outcome of that session is a contract which covers the objectives, content, and circumstances of the observation visit. At the appointed time, team members visit the class for 15 to 20 minutes, an adequate duration since each observer has a different task. During the postobservation conference, observers describe their data, initially making no value judgments and emphasizing primarily the strengths of the teacher. Conversation then moves toward formulating a plan for strengthening a pertinent area of teaching.

Throughout, the team critiques its own performance as a group and as individuals, sometimes meeting without the member who has been observed. "By observing, critiquing, and planning strategies for the improvement of the teaching of colleagues, faculty members acquire knowledge, insights, and strategies useful for self-supervision and self-improvement" (p. 24).

Training

Classroom observation is not necessarily a productive technique, especially in the absence of training. Scriven (1981) discusses classroom visits as an example of how *not* to evaluate teaching. He notes that the presence of visitors is likely to alter classroom events, that one or two visits do not comprise a sufficient sample of teaching, and that teachers require considerable training to minimize the bias which their individual prejudices introduce into observational data. Further, he contends that there is little research evidence to show that observable teaching behaviors are reliably related to measures of student learning.

Some of these points are less pertinent when visits are used for the purpose of improving teaching than when they contribute data for tenure and promotion decisions. Nevertheless, attempts should be made to help faculty become more objective and reliable observers. Consideration might also be given to other ways of assessing classroom events. It is considerably less costly to rely on tape recordings or on the teacher's own reports or on student evaluations than to spend time visiting the classroom. For some purposes those low effort data may be sufficient for successful consultation with a colleague.

When classroom visits are indicated, some time should be

invested in improving observation and feedback skills. Training should cover, among other areas, use of appropriate paper and pencil forms to organize observations, how to select information for feedback which is *new* information for the person being observed, how to differentiate descriptive and judgmental comments while giving feedback, and how to deal with colleagues if the situation becomes stressful. Role playing is a helpful technique for this training, and role play sessions might be stimulated by videotapes of teachers who are not members of the group.

Sample instruments for observation and guidelines for giving feedback can be found in Fuhrmann and Grasha (1983) and in Bergquist and Phillips (1975) as well as in the files of many practitioners around the country who have developed their own approaches.

Rewards

Faculty participate in consultation activities for many reasons, but primarily because of their inclination toward active feedback seeking and their intrinsic motivation to become more sensitive and flexible teachers. Rewards for participation are also important and should not be overlooked, although such rewards need not be large. A modest cash stipend may suffice, or provision might be made for something which would make teaching more effective or simply make it easier, for example, library or clerical assistance, instructional hardware or software, participation in an off-campus workshop or conference, and so on. Since the value of such rewards/incentives varies with the individual's situation, they are most effective when selected by each participant.

CONCLUSION

Effectiveness of colleagues as consultants in the teaching improvement process has yet to be validated against criteria of student learning. As far as faculty participants are concerned, however, findings are clear: participants report high satisfaction, more interaction with other faculty members, increased motivation, and renewed interest in teaching.

Returning to the chemistry analogy, we can now identify

some conditions associated with situations where colleagues are most likely to affect "reactions" between faculty and their students. The teacher is an active agent in these reactions, that is, an active feedback seeker. The environment is favorable for the reaction; for example, costs must not be prohibitive, participants are appropriately trained, and rewards include both intrinsic and extrinsic consequences.

Finally, it is important to note that when the reaction occurs it affects not only the teacher and students but the feedback giver as well. A colleague enters into the reaction and is inevitably changed by that experience. The fact that both feedback giver and feedback seeker are changed contradicts the common meaning of catalyst; that is, the catalyst is a substance which remains unaltered in the reaction. Although effects on the colleague may weaken the analogy with chemistry, their occurrence is a definite bonus for programs to improve teaching.

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Faculty Collaboration for Better Teaching: Adult Learning Principles Applied to Teaching Improvement

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Teaching is something that most of us do behind closed doors, only in the presence of our students. It is on rare occasions that we are observed by our peers or that we team teach. Only infrequently do we discuss our teaching with our colleagues. Instructional improvement services are often provided in the form of confidential consultation with an expert.

The most widely accepted principles of adult learning suggest that adults thrive on collaborative learning. Adults are motivated by peer involvement and support, and sharing their experiences is a powerful resource for learning. This paper describes how these principles were employed in the design of an instructional improvement program for university faculty and attending physicians in a teaching hospital.

RATIONALE

Instructional development specialists use various approaches to enhance the quality of teaching in postsecondary settings. These efforts are successful to some extent, but faculty members in colleges, universities, professional schools, and graduate programs continue to pose challenges to the instructional development specialist.

Resistance to instructional improvement programs often is the result of competing values and perceptions of faculty roles.

Postsecondary faculty members tend to view themselves as scholars or professionals first, and teachers second. Even among those who do value teaching highly are faculty who believe teaching cannot be improved. If they think "you either have it or you don't," instructional improvement activities probably seem irrelevant to them.

When I began the process of designing teaching improvement programs for faculty in a university and a teaching hospital, I recognized that the faculty might be resistant to an approach that did not treat them as competent adults. They were all experts in their fields, had experience in teaching, and were successful professionals, although in these two settings, their roles and responsibilities as teachers varied greatly. The twenty-five faculty who participated in the program described here taught subjects ranging from engineering to economics in typical university classrooms and labs. The fifteen teachers at the teaching hospital, usually physicians in private practice, conducted attending rounds in internal medicine with a small group of six to eight residents and medical students for six hours a week for one month. Teaching sessions typically focused on cases presented by residents and students.

In attempting to motivate these adult learners to think about teaching, I drew on principles of adult learning to design a model for instructional improvement. In both settings these were the first formal programs designed to enhance instruction. I incorporated these principles to engender support for, and positive participation of faculty in, instructional improvement activities.

ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES

In the past ten years as we have become a "learning society" (Cross, 1984), theory and research on the adult learner have expanded greatly. Educators have increased understanding of the conditions that promote continued learning beyond traditional school years.

Brookfield (1986) summarizes the current research on adults as learners. "Adults learn best when they feel the need to learn and when they have a sense of responsibility for what, why, and how they learn. Adults use experience as a resource in learning so the learning content and process must bear a perceived and meaningful relationship to past experience" (p. 31).

Five principles of adult learning provide the foundation for the model of instructional development described in this paper. They will be explained briefly and supported by related findings from the literature on instructional improvement.

1. *Most adult learners are self-directed* (Tough, 1971; Knowles, 1984). Self-directed learning is a process in which the individual takes initiative in diagnosing needs, designing learning experiences, and evaluating learning. To respond to the self-directedness of adult learners, educators should be sensitive to learners' self-concepts. Their past experiences should be recognized as providing educational material, and there should be a general atmosphere of flexibility, regard for learners, and openness (Brundage and Mackeracher, 1980).

2. *Adult learners bring rich and varied experiences to the learning situation.* In his theory of adult learning, Knowles (1984) cites experience as the richest resource for adult learners; the analysis of this experience makes the learning relevant and generates involvement in adult learning activities.

3. *Shared experiences and mutual assistance facilitate adult learning.* Collaboration enhances the self-concepts of those involved and results in more meaningful and effective learning (Brundage and Mackeracher, 1980). In instructional improvement activities teachers report that what they liked best about in-service workshops was the sharing of ideas with other teachers (Holly, 1982).

4. *The motivation of adults for learning is usually instinsic, rather than extrinsic.* In most cases adults enter into learning activities in order to solve a particular problem or satisfy a particular need. According to Brundage and Mackeracher (1980), this voluntary participation is likely to create a non-threatening climate of instruction that will result in a greater amount of learning. In instructional improvement activities, Lindquist (1979) suggests that faculty design the goals of the program. They know what their needs are so they should be the ones to define what effective teaching is. Experts cannot force faculty to change; faculty must see the changes as solutions to their problems.

5. *Feedback is very beneficial for adult learners.* It allows adults to evaluate their own learning and performance, to

understand their level of competence, to maintain their effort toward realistic goals, to correct errors, and to receive encouragement (Wlodkowski, 1985). Several sources of feedback can contribute to change in teacher performance: self-assessment, videotape, and consultation (Skeff, 1984). Classroom teaching is both easier to understand and easier to improve if one focuses on observable, changeable behaviors rather than on intractable generalities. Explicit feedback on the frequency of occurrence of specific behaviors in classroom teaching or intensive consultation or training focused on a limited set of classroom behaviors makes changing teaching behaviors a concrete and more easily accomplished task (Murray, 1985).

One source of feedback is self-assessment. It allows adult learners to compare their performance to a defined performance standard. This promotes more active planning and persistence toward the attainment of the standard. The criteria should be specific, preset, and agreed to by the teacher doing the assessment (Stritter, 1983). Rippey (1980) believes self-assessment should be undertaken in conjunction with assessment from students, peers, administrators and/or educational consultants.

Videotape can provide the teacher with feedback on performance. As part of the instructional improvement process, videotapes provide a record of performance for the individual and a specific focus for discussions between the faculty member and consultant. Videotaping has been used in instructional improvement programs in university teaching and in medical education (Melnick and Sheehan, 1976; Cassie, Collins, and Daggett, 1977).

As noted earlier, the instructional development specialist or consultant can be a valuable source of feedback (Erickson and Erickson, 1979). The consultant can engage the teacher in discussion by suggesting interpretations of teaching events, specifying salient behaviors and offering alternatives, and sharing expertise to resolve an instructional question (Carrier, 1980).

THE INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT MODEL

With these adult learning principles in mind, I designed a three-stage model for instructional improvement. The process begins by having faculty develop criteria for effective teaching; it uses videotaping and consultation as vehicles for self-evaluation,

feedback, and collaborative assistance.

Stage 1—Volunteer faculty participants join a seminar to review the literature on effective teaching as it applies to their particular setting, purpose, and student population. They sort through sets of cards that contain descriptions of effective teaching found in the literature. This review helps them discuss teaching in specific terms. Through their discussions they come to agree upon a set of behaviors which they believe constitutes effective teaching.

This stage of the process recognizes and incorporates the self-directedness of these volunteers. It acknowledges their experience as teachers able to establish a definition of effective teaching that fits their setting; and it fosters collaboration through which their experiences are synthesized to produce a common standard of excellence.

Stage 2—Faculty participants use the standard of excellence they have developed to assess their own teaching performance. Since they participated in the establishment of the criteria for effective teaching, they are willing to be evaluated in reference to it. Faculty members are videotaped for one hour of teaching after which they view the videotape with the instructional development consultant in an individual conference. After each five minute segment the teacher and the consultant stop the tape to discuss the effective teaching behaviors which were present or absent in the segment. The viewing session is intended to be a positive, nonthreatening experience focused on particular behaviors. It is clearly oriented toward instructional improvement, not the evaluation of teaching. At the conclusion of the viewing session, the faculty member develops a list of effective teaching behaviors to incorporate more often in teaching. A second videotape made later in the term provides the faculty member with evidence of progress toward the accomplishment of these self-chosen goals for instructional improvement.

This stage of the process capitalizes on the intrinsic motivation of the adult learner. Each has volunteered to participate, which indicates a desire to improve teaching. The process uses feedback from self-assessment, analysis of videotapes, and discussion with the consultant using criteria that are specific, preset, and agreed to by the faculty participant. Individual viewing and consultation create a nonthreatening setting which

promotes learning. Participants set their own goals, consistent with the view of adults as self-directed learners.

Stage 3—All the participants have an opportunity to view the teaching behavior of their colleagues. The consultant edits the videotapes to identify particular episodes of effective teaching. The participants gather to view the segments and to discuss how the episodes illustrate the teaching behaviors they previously identified. Many teachers find observing others on videotape to be as beneficial as watching themselves. Perhaps this is because teachers usually work in isolation and so rarely see their peers practicing their craft.

This stage of the process uses the principles of adult learning that suggest the value of collaboration. As they discuss their teaching behaviors members of the group provide each other mutual assistance and support.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE MODEL

To illustrate the impact of the model, I will describe the experiences of several participants. One of the university faculty who participated in defining effective teaching was a professor of English literature. After watching himself on videotape, he identified three specific behaviors that he wanted to incorporate in his teaching to improve his performance. He wanted to be more explicit in stating his teaching objectives, more organized in developing major points, and more clear in presenting summaries at the end of class sessions. When I showed segments of his videotape to his colleagues during a group meeting, they admired his rapport and the way he responded to students. The climate he created welcomed student comments and questions. Through the program the professor gained a better understanding of his teaching, and he developed a set of target behaviors for improving his teaching. His colleagues benefited from the opportunity to analyze his teaching and to observe a model of lively student-faculty interaction.

When he observed himself on videotape, another university faculty member was amazed at the pace of his presentation of material. As a professor of engineering he presents complicated equations using the chalkboard. He intersperses humor with this material to allow students to catch up with him, but as he observed on the videotape, many of the students never caught

up. And no wonder the students did not have any questions . . . they were madly copying the equations and did not have time to think about what the professor said or what they wrote. The teacher was profoundly affected by this opportunity to observe himself on videotape. When the faculty group observed segments of his teaching on videotape, they praised his use of interesting analogies, many of which were humorous, and the animation he employed to make otherwise boring equations lively.

At the teaching hospital many of the attending physicians who observed themselves on videotape were surprised at how much they talked during attending rounds. This was informative since they defined effective teaching in terms of how well the teacher got the residents to think, solve problems, and organize information. One attending physician observed, "It looks like I am trying to impress everyone with how smart I am."

One of the most powerful episodes on tape showed the attending physician challenging students to apply information about a type of drug therapy to the case of a hypothetical patient. As the attending physician contributed more and more information and questions about the "patient," the students were required to explain their treatment plan. After viewing the segment, the other attending physicians openly admired this technique and they asked their colleague to tell them more about how he did it and how often. In the process, the group reaffirmed its belief in the role of the attending physician as a facilitator of thinking rather than a dispenser of knowledge.

SUMMARY

Participants in this program frequently discovered discrepancies between their ideal teaching model and their actual teaching. Since they developed the definition of effective teaching in collaboration with their peers, this discrepancy between ideal and actual teaching was non-threatening and stimulated a desire to improve. The activities of the model were based on adult learning principles; as predicted, the participants were actively involved, motivated to improve their teaching, responsive to feedback, and interested in sharing their perspectives with others. Collaboration promoted interest in the improvement of teaching, and prompted new respect for the teaching skills

of peers. Most of the teachers had never seen their peers teach, but once they did, they saw effective behaviors worth emulating.

Teaching doesn't need to be such a solitary activity. By creating opportunities for faculty to talk about their teaching and to observe each other, we stimulate them to think about teaching, to improve their own teaching, and to develop new levels of respect for the teaching skills of their colleagues.

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Faculty Developers as Facilitators of Scholarly Writing

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Faculty development programs usually focus on teaching and assume little or no responsibility for facilitating scholarly writing. This detachment from direct intervention clearly does not reflect the importance of writing productivity in the reward structure of academe. Indeed, faculty developers recognize that writing brings a more enduring sense of career satisfaction and personal accomplishment for many faculty than does any other professional activity.

Two general reasons help explain why faculty rarely get formal assistance with writing problems. First is the assumption that adaptive habits of scholarship are something that faculty must acquire on their own. Colleagues who do not write are presumed to be disinterested, lazy, or unfit. The end result of this fitness approach borders on the tragic. Many of the 80 percent of all college and university professors who publish little or nothing report feeling distressed and unfulfilled as professionals (Boice & Jones, 1984).

A second reason that few faculty developers offer writing programs may be that most of us feel that we lack the necessary credibility and expertise. In fact, little specialized knowledge is required to address common attitudinal and behavioral factors that relate to success in writing and publishing. A number of sources (e.g., Fox, 1985) provide practical suggestions about ways of building collaborative support groups and

of dealing successfully with editors. Recent work in faculty development shows that academics with little experience in facilitating writing, such as departmental chairpeople, quickly master programs that help increase the scholarly productivity of colleagues (Boice, in press).

Faculty interest in programs designed to facilitate their writing may increase in the near future. Most of the junior faculty currently being hired, even at institutions which have traditionally deemphasized creative scholarship, face increased demands to publish. Further, many of these young faculty are unlikely to find a collegial environment that supports scholarship (Turner & Boice, 1987).

We encourage developers to confront the fact that writing is often a problematic activity with which faculty need and want help. This paper outlines practical means for implementing the developmental aids listed below. None of the suggested strategies requires any specialized expertise or skills. All have been tried on our own and other campuses with some success.

HOLDING WORKSHOPS ON WRITING ATTITUDES AND HABITS

An effective initial step in establishing a writing program includes workshops with a structured format for group discussion of common beliefs and practices that may promote writing productivity. We typically limit enrollment to no more than 15 participants because maintaining group membership throughout the series of meetings promotes self-disclosure and involvement.

Our format for workshops begins with a 2-3 page handout (abstracted below) that outlines points for discussion on a given topic. The handouts provide information and prod participants to discuss their own feelings, observations, and experiences.

A value of these workshops derives from the fact that faculty typically view writing as an inherently private activity. Most of us rarely discuss our writing problems or practices with others, particularly our colleagues. The discovery that one's anxieties, procrastination rituals, and other maladaptive behaviors are the norm, rather than some personal aberration, is cathartic. These mutual disclosures clear the air and promote

the adoption of more constructive attitudes and behaviors.

The following abbreviated examples from handouts illustrate workshop topics and content.

WORKSHOP A: Education/demystification about the writing process. This workshop proceeds around discussion of common misbeliefs about writing, for example:

1. "Writing is inherently difficult": In fact, good writing is not much more difficult than collegial conversation. Both writing and conversation carry slight risks of being criticized; but both, when not practiced, carry the potential that faculty will be isolated, unheard, and unstimulated.

2. "Good writing must be original": In fact, little, if any of what we think or write is truly original. Much of what we cherish bears repeating, especially in new perspectives.

3. "Good writing must be perfect": This is no more true for writing than for social conversation. Successful authors realize that perfect manuscripts are unattainable, and that a perfectionistic attitude is counterproductive.

4. "Good writing must be spontaneous; good writers await inspiration before beginning": In fact, writers work best by beginning before they feel fully ready. Writers who await inspiration court writing blocks.

5. "Good writing proceeds quickly": The same writers who procrastinate writing often believe that writing, once under way, should flow effortlessly and that manuscripts should be finished in one or a few marathon sessions.

6. "Good writing is done best in binges. Writing requires large blocks of undisrupted time . . . at least whole mornings, better yet whole days, whole vacations, whole sabbaticals, whole retirements": In fact, writers who write regularly and in brief sessions evidence more productivity and creativity than writers who work in binges (Boice, 1983).

WORKSHOP B: Helping writers get started. This workshop covers ways of generating momentum and ideas for writing. It begins by acquainting participants with a simple technique known as free writing (Elbow, 1973). Participants are asked to move quickly into the task described in the instructions at the top of an otherwise blank sheet:

Generative Writing Sheet I

Pause just long enough to recall an experience from

> your school years that helped or hindered your writing. Then, before you've had a chance to think it all out, begin writing it spontaneously. Stick to the story, but don't stop for anything. Go quickly without rushing. Don't struggle over form or correctness. Just get something down. Keep it up for 10 minutes.

Faculty often seem a bit surprised by this request, but even the most blocked among them join the group in writing. The experience becomes even more curious as the group proceeds. Everyone writes furiously; most writers write at least a page. This result is a useful demonstration for faculty who believe that writing requires substantial warm-up times and preplanning. When asked to stop, many faculty display reluctance; they dislike stopping once they're on a roll. Their hesitancy to stop helps point out a reason why many faculty write in binges. Writers often fear that they will never again find momentum and/or ideas for writing.

The final surprise comes when writers read their writing aloud. Not only is the quantity remarkable, given the brief investment in time, but so is the quality. When they abandon their self-consciousness, many faculty produce admirably simple, direct, and readable sentences.

WORKSHOP C: Helping writers establish discipline. Establishing momentum and generating useful material turns out to be relatively easy. The more difficult step is getting writers to write regularly, to the point of completing and submitting manuscripts. This workshop consists largely of sharing information about ways to establish a writing regimen; it is organized around an outline of control principles for writing (Boice, 1985b; Hull, 1981).

1. Establish one or a few regular places for writing, places where you do nothing but write. Make writing sites sacred by removing all temptations for not writing.

2. Limit social interruptions during writing sessions by (a) closing your office door, (b) posting a writing schedule, (c) unplugging your phone, and (d) enlisting others to help you observe your schedule.

3. Find another writer to join you for mutually quiet periods of writing, preferably in nondistracting surroundings such as the library.

4. Make more valued activities (e.g., newspaper reading) contingent on first writing for a minimum period of time. Write while you're fresh (in the morning, if manageable), in brief and regular daily sessions.

5. Plan to work on specific, finishable units of writing in each session. Plan beyond daily goals, scheduling stages of manuscript completion over weeks.

6. Share your writing in its most formative stages, so that constructive critics can have realistic prospects of giving useful feedback.

7. Write in brief, daily sessions regardless of feelings of readiness.

OTHER WORKSHOPS: Arranging workshops around local talent. Once writing programs are under way, the inspiration typically continues to offer other, related workshops. Developers might, for instance, assemble a panel of faculty who publish successfully to provide practical knowledge on ways of coping with editorial systems. Or, present a workshop which reviews published advice on scholarly writing and publishing for faculty (e.g., Fox, 1985; Scarr, 1982).

INSTITUTING WRITER SUPPORT GROUPS

Writing productivity is enhanced by the appreciation, encouragement, and nurturing of others. Although the lone scholar myth remains prominent in academic lore (Hood, 1985), research suggests that successful scholars are distinguished from their less productive peers by the quality and quantity of their collegial ties (Pelz & Andrews, 1976).

Although this type of mutual self-help group is highly valued by participants, its occurrence appears surprisingly rare. In one sampling of 100 social science departments, for example, fewer than 25 percent of doctoral programs and fewer than 8 percent of master's level programs had such groups which met at least once a semester. The focus of support groups varies depending on participants, but they generally aim to provide stimulation and reinforcement for writing despite all the competing demands and frustrations (e.g., heavy teaching load, family responsibilities, rejected manuscripts, etc.).

Direct observations and follow-ups of various writer support groups indicate that the qualities of the group most valued by

its members are not necessarily synonymous with objective criteria of group effectiveness (Boice, in press). Groups rated as most beneficial by faculty included the following components, ranked in order of apparent importance:

1. group generates and shares ideas for writing projects;
2. group meets frequently (at least once a month);
3. group shares practical knowledge about setting reasonable goals for productivity, completing projects, and getting work submitted for publication; and
4. group builds an enduring support network which reinforces values regarding the importance and benefits of scholarly writing.

These faculty self-reports of what satisfied them most, however, did not necessarily result in actual increases in pages written and articles accepted for publication. The factors that did relate more substantially to improved productivity were:

1. group expects each member to bring samples of ongoing writing projects to meetings where they are shared and discussedwith colleagues;
2. group openly discusses the maladaptive ideas and practices of members (e.g., that one can write only in binges);
3. group regularly includes a department chair; and
4. group participation leads to collaborative writing.

An excellent general discussion with practical advice about establishing writing support groups can be found in Hood (1985). She advocates inclusion of actual writing sessions in meetings, recruiting colleagues with whom you will feel comfortable in sharing defeats and triumphs, beginning with goal-setting, assigning someone the role of facilitator, and putting "graduates" of support groups to work as resources.

USING PRODUCTIVE FACULTY TO MODEL IDEAL WRITING HABITS

Developers can help promote better writing habits by enlisting successful writers to join in regular regimens of writing and discussion of the writing experience with their less successful colleagues. We do this as part of a mentoring program where senior colleagues get rewards for carrying out a structured series of meetings with protegés (i.e., junior faculty). We also ask faculty to volunteer as unpaid mentors/facilitators for

unproductive colleagues. Few of these requests have been denied.

Role models often provide a compelling demonstration of what extensive testing shows: writing in brief (30-60 minute), daily sessions significantly improves writing productivity over the long run (Boice, 1983). Daily writing increases the number of pages written for already active writers who write in binges. It also helps unproductive faculty who suppose themselves too overscheduled and busy to write.

The basic notion here is simple and straightforward. We believe that writing skills and practices are learned activities, and that exposure to effective models can be a powerful learning strategy. In the immortal words of Lawrence Peter "Yogi" Berra, "You can observe a lot just by watching." The role of the faculty developer here is to create and reinforce opportunities for this form of collegial interaction. One way to arrange such interactions comes in inviting faculty to use a room set aside for writing; our "writing room" at CSU Long Beach encourages productive and unproductive writers to work within sight (and occasional comment) of each other. Here again, faculty in both categories generally respond well to our friendly requests that they participate in such interactions.

MAKING BRIEF, CASUAL VISITS TO FACULTY OFFICES

Many of us acquire habits that help maintain inactive roles vis-a-vis scholarship. We tend to remain in our offices and wait for problematic faculty to seek us out or to be referred by administrators. This tradition serves to encourage selectivity regarding who interacts with developers and the substantive focus of interaction. It rarely provides naturally occurring opportunities to encourage and assist faculty efforts at scholarly writing.

We urge faculty developers to establish the practice of making brief (10-15 minute), occasional visits to faculty in their offices. These informal visits foster greater trust and improved communication. They also aid in enlisting faculty, especially social isolates or those disinclined to seek help, in developmental activities and goals. When one of those activities is scholarly writing, regular visits by faculty development staff can make a dramatic difference in writing commitment

and output. The following table (from Boice & Makosky, 1986) illustrates typical results obtained with and without follow-up contacts.

Long-Term Productivity and Satisfaction of Writing Study Participants

	(N = 24)			
	Writing Productivity (written pgs. per week)		Self-Satisfaction (10 points max.) with writing	
	1 mon.	2 yr.	1 mon.	2 yr.
With field contacts	10.2	7.1	7.8	7.9
Without field contacts	6.5	1.5	7.8	6.1

More detailed discussion of how to recruit faculty as voluntary research subjects for such projects is provided elsewhere (Boice, 1986).

HELPING TO ARRANGE MENTORING AND COLLABORATION

Mentoring and collaboration are important support strategies for helping writers follow through on approaches already discussed. Faculty provided with opportunities to discuss writing problems and ideas with colleagues often discover unforseen opportunities for collaboration. One colleague, for example, may have mounds of unanalyzed data and another the skills and motivation to do the analysis. Someone else may have a surfeit of ideas for publishable papers while another is knowledgeable in the same area but has been unable to focus his or her thoughts and energies on a particular topic.

Developers can play a particularly valuable role in fostering collaboration. Although some faculty will take the initiative and seek each other out, others are apparently reluctant to make the initial contact, even when mutual needs and benefits seem obvious. On our campus we have found several instances where faculty with similar scholarly interests were in different departments and did not know one another.

In the course of assuming a proactive stance towards scholarship, by leaving his or her office for field visits to faculty at work, the developer gets to know the particular interests and needs of individuals and can offer a sort of intellectual matchmaking service as appropriate occasions arise. Some faculty may need this prodding and encouragement to become more sociable about writing. An informative discussion of the intellectual, emotional, and structural factors involved in the collaborative relationship can be found in a chapter by Fox and Faver (1982). Briefly, they give advice about factors to consider in choosing partners (e.g., matching interests, skills, and primacy of work), in sharing and separating task components, in contracting to keep manuscripts on schedule, and in communicating trust.

BECOMING AN ACTIVE MODEL FOR GOOD WRITING HABITS

Faculty developers sometimes dismiss the notion that they also can become active scholars. Like many faculty they see themselves as too busy and overscheduled to manage much writing.

Once involved in helping promote the writing of others, however, developers often discover the benefits of practicing what they preach. For a variety of reasons, the process of motivating and instructing faculty leads to constructive self-examination of one's own writing attitudes and practices.

Those developers who model the system they advocate can significantly enhance their credibility and influence, not only with faculty, but also with other critical groups such as department chairs. Our study of new faculty, for instance, strongly suggests that chairs are a crucial factor in the successful implementation of writing programs. Chairs who actively participated in writing programs and/or who modeled visible levels of scholarship and collegiality were importantly linked to those new faculty who were getting scholarly writing done at rates sufficient for eventual success in retention/tenure/promotion procedures. In contrast, when chairs were uninvolved and claimed to be too busy for scholarship, most of their new young faculty were prone to adopt similar excuses.

PREPARING FOR RESISTANCE AND FRUSTRATION

Despite the rewards and success potential for faculty developers who offer the type of program outlined here, such ventures are sometimes difficult. We encourage other developers who undertake such projects to begin with realistic expectations about resistance, frustration, and short-term failure.

The topic of writing, especially of being remiss at getting it done or published, arouses powerful emotions. Defensiveness among faculty is likely to be the norm, not the exception. Resistance toward changing one's approach to writing usually begins by involving "busyness" and then proceeds to a more or less idiosyncratic listing of other reasons or excuses; many comments by faculty reflect deeply held personal convictions that are counterproductive.

With some forewarning, faculty developers can forearm themselves against factors that undermine morale and effectiveness. The list that follows rank-orders (by descending frequency) the most commonly encountered comments of faculty who have participated in our writing workshops:

1. A general negativism towards the value of writing and publishing (e.g., "Ninety percent of what gets published is crap, so why should I add to that pile?").

2. The belief that scholarship and effective teaching are inherently incompatible (e.g., "You can't do both well. Something has to give. Professor X in my department is a prime example of that.").

3. Assertions that writing is beyond the scope of one's contractual responsibilities (e.g., "When they hired me here, publishing wasn't required. I'm doing what I agreed to do, and that doesn't include writing.").

4. Chronic self-doubts expressed about aptitude for writing and creative scholarship (e.g., "I feel that I have nothing original or significant to say, and am afraid that if I try to publish others will judge me to be an incompetent fraud.").

5. Accounts of personal experience evidently designed to contradict the developer's suggestions about good writing practices. Typically, these begin with a competency display (i.e., "I have published X articles and . . .") before proceeding to the clincher (e.g., "I never begin writing unless I have at least a week of uninterrupted time." Or, "I have found that you have to completely sacrifice your family life." Or, "I never show my

writing to anyone until it is as perfect as I can make it.").

These and other forms of resistance can, in our experience, be anticipated and dealt with constructively. Many of our own articles about faculty development grew from attempts to answer persistent objections (Boice, 1984; Boice, 1985a; Turner and Boice, 1986). We regularly circulate these manuscripts among developers facing similar arguments from faculty. Usually, faculty reluctance contains elements of truth, and the skilled developer can find nonargumentative ways to explore the various pros and cons of a given comment or criticism.

Facilitators of faculty writing may, inevitably, question whether or not their efforts are worth the time and effort. Some faculty, in our experience, suddenly disappear and avoid any further contact. Some mentoring relationships or collaborations fail. Some workshops draw few attendees. And some support groups wither and disband. In essence, though, presentation of writing programs resembles other faculty development offerings. The developer presents practical ideas in ways that encourage faculty to adopt or modify them as they see fit. Some faculty experience significant and lasting benefits, while others reject most, or all, of what developers offer. When we lead writing programs we remind ourselves that we need to be especially sensitive, understanding, patient, and willing to take risks.

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A Marketing Approach to Conducting Successful Workshop-Based Programs for Faculty

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Our purpose is to share what we have learned from our successes and failures conducting workshops for faculty. Although our programs are quite differently funded and focused, the reasons for our workshop triumphs and defeats are common. At the core of our successes has been a marketing orientation and the use of marketing devices (Note 1).

Some background about our programs will clarify the context in which we work. The University of Minnesota-Duluth (UMD) Instructional Development Service (IDS), initially funded by the Bush Foundation, will be supported by university monies as of July 1987. IDS serves 416 full-time faculty and administrators and 120 part-time faculty and teaching assistants. IDS has 1.0-1.5 FTE consulting staff who handle individualized and group consultations, the IDS Newsletter, mini-libraries, and the program evaluation. A quarter-time secretary and administrative guidance from the Associate Vice Chancellor of Academic Administration complete IDS personnel.

The Professional Development program (PD) at Northeastern Illinois University (UNI) is modestly funded by the state. The UNI professional staff is composed of 376 full-time teaching faculty, 172 part-time instructors, and 171 chairpersons, administrators and professional support persons. PD's audience includes teaching faculty, librarians and counselors,

and administrators up to the level of dean. Rusty manages the program as half of a mid-level administrative position. A secretary and two students complete the staff.

A MARKETING ORIENTATION: THE KEY TO SUCCESSFUL WORKSHOPS

The essence of a marketing orientation means meeting the needs of your audience or target market. Often, people in nonprofit organizations in their enthusiasm to "spread the word" feel they must "educate" their target market to need the services the nonprofit organization offers. "Education" takes the form of flashy advertisements and hoopla. This "selling" orientation is likely to fail or at best be a slow and expensive process. When professional and organizational development professionals use a marketing orientation to plan and implement workshops, they are likely to succeed because they are meeting a need the target market already perceives — IF there is a generic demand for workshops in the target market. Our experiences show that such a demand for workshops exists.

Marketing consists of four "p's": Product, Promotion, Place (in this case, where the workshop is held), and Price. Workshop marketing therefore consists of the workshop topic and its presentation, promoting the workshop, and the site of the workshop. If a fee is charged to attend the workshop, this is the "price" aspect of marketing. Since both at UMD and UNI no fees are charged, we will not address the price issue but will discuss each of the other three p's of marketing. Because the basis of marketing is meeting the needs of your target market, we first have to find out what those needs are—through marketing research.

MARKETING RESEARCH: IDENTIFYING THE NEEDS OF YOUR TARGET MARKET

Great food and a world famous presenter are liabilities if no one comes to your workshop. It is essential to know what your faculty wants and needs before you choose a topic.

To identify the needs and wants of your full constituency, formal marketing research methods should be used. These can be either qualitative or quantitative. With either technique, it

is important to sample a cross-section of your target market to learn about the "silent majority" who have not actively participated in workshops before and/or have not volunteered their workshop interest.

At Northeastern, we conducted a qualitative needs assessment during the first year of the program. We identified a random, stratified sample of the population. The members of the Professional Development Advisory Committee interviewed the sample using the focused interview technique. Our aim was to identify the basic needs and values of our professional employees. We asked questions about how and why they chose academic careers, how UNI is different from what they expected or their ideal, whether or not they wished they were in some other career or university. We make sure that our workshop topics are appropriate to the values identified by the research and address the gap between the reality of academic work at UNI and the ideal as expressed by the interviewees.

The UNI constituency dislikes paper and pencil surveys; thus, we do not ordinarily attach our name to such instruments. Rather, we use quantitative data gathered by other units in the university and continue to interview.

At UMD, during IDS's start-up quarter, we sent a survey to the faculty inquiring about professional needs and interests from which a list of potential workshop topics was generated. (See Appendix A for a sample Faculty Needs Assessment Survey.) We supported and added to our survey data by talking with other schools and other POD members about their experiences with particular workshop topics.

Informal feedback also can help to identify topics of interest. On each evaluation form circulated after the workshops, we ask for suggestions for future workshop topics. All of our workshops have been initiated in response to faculty request.

In addition to using surveys, evaluation form suggestions, previous audience interests, and faculty requests, we keep up on all "hot" educational issues, both nationally and campus-specific. The topics are "there for the pickin'" for program planners who LISTEN. We are out and about with our ears finely tuned to the campus grapevine to gather "soft" data. We teach. We lunch. We coffee. We LISTEN. We LISTEN. We LISTEN. We check our rumor data against our "hard"

data and decide on a workshop topic. (See Appendix B for a listing of topics which have worked for us and others.)

MARKETING YOUR WORKSHOP: PLANNING, IMPLEMENTATION AND CONTROL

Now that you have identified the needs and wants of your target market, you can choose a topic that responds to the demand of your target market. Marketing activities occur in three steps: planning, implementation, and control. We will discuss each stage and the appropriate marketing p's (product, promotion, and/or place).

Planning: Product

The most basic product decision for a workshop is the topic. However, products consist of attributes which provide a "bundle of benefits" offered to your target market. These include an effective presenter who is well prepared (i.e., who knows your target market and therefore how to present and organize the workshop content for them). Other attributes include the right format and length of your workshop as well as the right date.

Product: Choosing a Presenter

Presenters can be nationally-known educators, peers within your institution, colleagues from other campuses, or yourself. All can turn out an audience if you correctly coordinate the workshop from beginning until end.

Whether you use someone from inside or outside will probably depend to a large extent on how much money you can spend. Of course, someone from inside is cheaper, maybe even free. Although some workshop coordinators believe that insiders may not attract as large an audience as outsiders, this has not been our experience. For example, if respected campus presenters are chosen and publicity is handled well, the audience number may be even greater for one of your own than for a national expert who is not well-known on your campus. If you are tuned to the grapevine, you should have some idea of people on campus who might be able to present the workshop.

You can add to your list of names by posing your topic to department chairs, Student Affairs, and your speaker's bureau or public relations people.

If you decide to look outside of your university for a presenter, you may be able to find a reasonably priced expert in the same city or nearby. In doing so you will save on travel, housing, and other costs. Sometimes, you can even barter a workshop trade with an institution close to you. (This has been done in long distance situations on occasion; however, the problem is that, unless the trades can occur virtually simultaneously, university budgets tend to fluctuate, normally in a downward fashion, so that one of the two parties is cheated -out of the opportunity to present elsewhere or by suddenly being a workshop short).

We have had tremendous good fortune in selecting effective presenters from outside our universities by attending conference programs of professional organizations such as POD, AAHE, and various disciplinary associations. You can also ask your own network of professional colleagues if they know anyone who might fit your needs.

Use extreme caution in accepting anyone else's suggestion. The most important piece of advice we can give you is, if at all possible, ONLY HIRE SOMEONE YOU HAVE ACTUALLY SEEN DO A PRESENTATION. Even hiring pleasant conversationalists whom you have met can be a mistake. Chatting and organizing an interactive, structured presentation require different skills. Hiring presenters who sound good on paper or over the phone or who worked for someone else often results in disaster. Whenever possible attend an individual's workshop before hiring the person.

If you are on a low budget or need to conserve the funds you do have, splitting the costs of a presenter with another department or service organization within your institution can result in savings for both. Another way to share costs is to work with other institutions in your local area. Two universities can split airfare and housing costs while each pays the consulting fee for the work performed on the site. You might consider a consortium arrangement in which each of the members selects workshop topics and presenters well in advance and exchanges their plans so that these resources and costs can be shared.

Product: Getting the Presenter Ready

Except for some minor variations, both internal and external presenters need the same kinds of things to get them ready to do the workshop. Send the external presenter information about your campus so that she/he knows the important demographics. In a letter, identify the major current campus issues. For both internal and external presenters, identify those campus issues that may have an effect on the success of the workshop. Use the issues to get the presenter to focus the workshop to fit your institution's needs. If, for example, your university is in the middle of a major retrenchment which will affect faculty positions, the presenter of your career development workshop needs to know this.

In addition to issues, identify the kinds of activities the audience will expect. What works? What doesn't work? At both our schools the audience will expect to DO something rather than just sit there. On the other hand, at UNI faculty dislike activities that are personally revealing. Be sure, in any case, that the presenter works in some kind of networking, getting-to-know-each-other activity. As soon as you can, send the presenter the names of the people attending, their departments, and any other pertinent information.

On a more mundane level, set deadlines for having the presenter's handouts to you to be reproduced or agree that the presenter will provide the handouts. Well before the workshop, discuss what kind of AV equipment the presenter needs and how she/he would like to have the workshop room arranged.

If you are working with a consultant who is charging a fee, be certain you understand exactly what you are paying for. Have a clearly negotiated fee set well in advance; if budget constraints limit you, use your best Tijuana bargain-hunting skills. Are expenses included in the fee or added to it? If a presenter is doing a workshop one afternoon and repeating it the next morning, are you paying for two days' time? Can you expect that person to meet with other special interest groups or your staff while on campus? Settle these matters before the person sets foot on campus. Collect any needed information required by your university to establish a contract. Do not forget the Social Security number. Get all of the appropriate paper work done and done correctly so that the presenter can be paid as quickly as possible given the idiosyncrasies of your

institution. Both you and the presenter must keep receipts for any allowable expense.

Usually for an external presenter, you also need to make arrangements for a place to stay, getting to and from the airport, and getting from one place to another on campus. Some people like to be alone the evening before they present; others do not enjoy solitude in a strange place and prefer to be entertained. Ask about your presenter's preferences and try to accommodate them. Send maps of the campus and city, enclose parking permits, or arrange to meet the presenter at the airport. Be certain your consultant knows where to park as universities are often reluctant to pay parking tickets.

If your workshop involves a panel of speakers, you face additional organizational responsibility in coordinating the preparations of several people. Begin working with the panel two months before the program. Make certain everyone has a fairly clear idea of his or her role by the end of the first brainstorming session. Give specific work assignments with due dates. Deadlines for materials to include in a workshop packet need to be set way ahead of the workshop date; one polished procrastinator can cause havoc in your busy pre-workshop life. As workshop time draws near, have a practice session with all present. As a courtesy and as a tranquilizer for yourself, talk to every presenter the day before the session to check last minute needs.

Product: Choosing a Format, Length, and Date

So, now that you have chosen your presenter, you must determine a time format which fits your audience's needs as it balances your presenter's abilities and time schedule. You must decide with the presenter how much time is needed to effectively address the topic. Remember to be sure that your presenter includes networking activities and uses an interactive style; let the participants participate. Workshops which are geared for a certain audience, say computer people, have their own set of demands. Hands-on experience may be a priority. In how-to workshops, participants benefit more if time is allocated for practicing the skill. Once your presenter understands the audience, the two of you will be able to determine the time needed to cover the topic and to propose some potentially effective formats.

You know your audience better than anyone else. How much time can you expect them to commit for any single session: a full day, half day, one hour? Will they come if the weather is bad, good? Spend some time with your university's room scheduling and class scheduling people to determine the times during the week when the fewest classes are being offered. Repeat each workshop to attempt to reach as many faculty as possible. We have good success offering the same workshop during a mid-week afternoon and then repeating it the following morning. Wednesday and Thursday are particularly good days for workshops at UMD and UNI. Neither of us has good success with workshops in the evenings, on weekends, or on Mondays or Fridays. (Those workshop coordinators whose budgets are big enough to offer weekend retreat workshops at nearby plush resorts will, of course, disagree with our last statement).

You also must take your presenter's schedule into consideration when determining the dates and length of the workshop. How long can that person be away from his or her own classes, campus, job, family? Each topic, each presenter, each faculty must be considered carefully as decisions are made about format, length of presentation, and dates.

Planning: Promotion

A flashy or clever promotion campaign will not guarantee success of a workshop when that workshop does not meet the basic needs of the target market. On the other hand, if your topic meets the needs of the target market and if the target market is informed about what the workshop is about and what benefits it offers, the world may beat a path to your door. Appropriate promotion techniques include advertising (both direct mail and in university media), personal selling, and publicity. Another form of promotion, sales promotion, is designed to elicit response through incentives such as premiums. If you have a large budget, for example, you might offer coffee mugs with a workshop logo to participants. Since our budgets are more modest, we concentrate on other forms of promotion. We especially emphasize direct mail advertising and personal selling.

At the beginning of each term, we provide the faculty with a list of workshops for that term. Linda includes hers in the *IDS*

Newsletter, giving an explanation of each workshop and a sign-up form (Appendix C). Although this does not get a high reply level, it alerts people to upcoming events. Rusty sends out a flyer with a list of the workshop titles, times and presenters for all of the workshops for that term. Ten days to two weeks before each workshop, send a flyer with a detailed explanation of what will happen at the workshop and a registration form. This is where you will get a good response if your workshop meets the needs of the audience and if you have made it sound like a worthwhile experience. The RSVP tear-off should include your return address, the workshop particulars, and blanks for the person's name, department, and telephone extension.

At UNI we use the same color and format for all workshop flyers. A yellow Professional Development Opportunity flyer means a PD event. UMD uses the same format for all workshops but color coordinates the flyers with the evaluation forms for each workshop to facilitate record keeping. Because you have been LISTENING to your constituency, you can begin your publicity with "in response to your request" or "returning by popular demand." In addition to your own flyers, advertise in in-house publications, student newspapers, and media when appropriate.

While you are out and about LISTENING to what your faculty is saying, you can also promote your next workshop. Make a special point to run into a person who you think might be interested in attending once you have made a personal invitation. Additionally, send a personal note or phone those people who might or should find the workshop useful.

Creating a series is a good way to keep regulars returning and to increase the number of participants. Word travels fast about quality presentations, so your audience builds with each additional member to your series. "Co-operative Learning," "Support for Computer-Based Instruction" and "Successful Instruction with _____ Students (Learning Disabled, International, Older-than-average, etc.)" have all worked for us. Although it is usually the topic which causes a faculty member to sign up and attend, some off-campus presenters can establish a following of their own based on previous presentations and will increase your attendance.

Planning: Place

If modest budgets require that workshops take place on campus, the most basic decision regarding "place" has been made for you. Of course, you may have a choice of several campus locations to use. If you have such a choice or if your budget allows workshops off campus, the choice of location depends on appropriateness to the workshop topic (discussed below) as well as—you guessed it—the wants and needs of your target market. As with all aspects of marketing, the best way to learn the needs of your target market is through marketing research.

Minimally, the choice of the workshops site depends on the requirements of the workshop itself. As soon as you know your presenter's plans and topic, you can determine your room needs. The anticipated number of participants will determine room size. The workshop activities will determine the kind of seating needed, e.g., to break up into groups, you should have moveable chairs. If the presenter wants an overhead projector, you also need a screen; a blackboard, chalk; an easel, newsprint and markers. Try to find a room that is away from the hurly burly of students passing to classes and other distractions.

As soon as you know your room needs, schedule the room. Actually go look at it. Make certain that it will acommodate your physical set-up and AV needs. Don't assume because the room contains a phone that is a live line. A dead phone can put a real damper on a computer workshop using modems; check the line ahead of time. On your equipment list, type the phone number of the poeple who supply equipment. Make friends with the janitors. Find out where the dollies are. Schedule the room for one-half hour before and after the presentation.

If your budget allows, order food and drink for workshop participants. Standard fare for either morning or afternoon should include coffee, tea and Sanka, cold soda, and some kind of juice for the health conscious. When it is hot, you can safely eliminate hot drinks for afternoon sessions. The food should be "silent" because only the most rude will loudly crunch carrots and celery during a presentation. Sweet rolls, cream cheese and bagels, or cream cheese and nutbreads work well in the morning with the addition of "quiet" but firm

fruits and cheese for the afternoons. Participants sincerely appreciate being treated in this fashion. In fact, food is a big budget item in many programs because it draws people and helps them socialize, which promotes your program. To entice pre-registrants, list the menu on the reminder memo which participants receive a day or two before the workshop. Besides the menu, include a "looking forward to seeing you at TIME in ROOM on DAY" statement. The reminder truly helps keep attendance equal to the number of pre-registrants.

IMPLEMENTATION

Now that you have planned your workshop, it is time to execute your plans. The day before the workshop have a list ready of everything that you will need the next day. Put the extension numbers of the janitors, food service, and AV center on the checklist. Gather all of the workshop materials and have them ready to go. Prepare a tote bag with workshop supplies such as extra markers, a nail file, a projector bulb, extra name tags, chalk, a stapler, pencils, paper, and anything else that you think might be necessary in an emergency. You would be amazed at how well a finger nail file can fix a faulty computer connection!

If you have pre-registered your participants, try to learn something about each one before the workshop which you can use in conversation. Of course, attempt to learn their names, departments, and faces so you can greet and introduce people on the big day.

Clear your schedule so that you are free for at least an hour before the workshop and so that you can stay afterwards as long as participants want to talk. Have someone available to run errands. Rusty brings a student assistant; Linda's secretary is on call.

Implementation: Place

Get to the room early. Set up a registration table. Arrange preprinted name tags in alphabetical order and neatly display any materials that you are giving to participants before the workshop begins. Do not include the evaluation form in the packet of materials; have it separate so people can fill it out

before they leave. Have a sign-in sheet for everyone, but especially for a record of those who arrive but did not reserve space. Leftover preprinted name tags will tell you which pre-registrants did not attend. Verify that the food is there, that it is what you ordered, that it is attractively arranged. Have a waste container available for refuse. Determine if the phone works. Survey the AV equipment to assure yourself that what you ordered is there and functioning. Provide the presenter with liquid for consumption during the workshop. You should make certain your presenter has no obligations for at least an hour before the workshop for last minute prep time. Providing a secluded spot such as your office to review notes is a courtesy appreciated by the most practiced presenters. Your office should be empty because you should be doing last minute checks on everything.

Implementation: Product

You can maximize the benefits of your workshop by attending to the social function of the workshop as well as the learning function. Remember, part of the product includes packaging!

Ask someone else to "person" the registration table so you can greet people as they arrive. You will want to introduce your participants to each other as well. This is a good time to help people connect. Helping the presenter connect names with faces will promote participation during the workshop. Welcome those who have not pre-registered with open arms. Always have extra name tags available.

After people have had a chance to socialize, call the group together and begin. In your introduction you have an opportunity to promote your program. Explain the services your program offers: publications, workshops, opportunities for individual and group consultations. Thank the participants for attending and encourage them to help themselves to refreshments at the appropriate time.

When you introduce the presenter, say something that indicates that you have some sort of relationship with this person, e.g., "In our discussion last evening." If the presenter is from your campus, mention times that you have worked together before. Provide a brief introduction to the material

the presenter will cover; build participants' anticipation, and turn it over to the person they are there to hear.

Your job is by no means done at this point. You must stay in the room to assist the presenter and participants in any way you can. Participate only if you do not detract from your registrants' experiences. Help circulate materials. Pass refreshment trays when appropriate. If the presenter breaks attendees into groups, assist in facilitating the groups whenever possible. If you run out of beverages, call food services immediately. Have extra pens and paper available for those who need them.

Have your campus photographer snap a few pictures during an interactive section of the workshop. These photographs can be put on display in a case or on a bulletin board. They will make those who attended feel important, make those who did not wish they had, and act as a publicity base for future endeavors.

When the presenter has completed the presentation, formally thank the presenter and the audience. Remind participants to complete the evaluation form. Mingle with those who are left discussing the workshop. Offer the presenter a cold beverage and congratulations.

Leave the facility in order. Take the time to thank all who helped you, from the janitors to the faculty person who helps you lug extra materials and equipment back to your office.

As soon as you return to your office, jot reminder notes for yourself. If workshop participants became interested in materials not available at the workshop, write this down so you can circulate copies of the article, book, video, or software. Before the presenter leaves campus, check with your secretary one more time to be certain financial forms have all the needed signatures and information.

Control

The "control" stage of the marketing process includes evaluating the success of your marketing strategy and using this new information to improve future marketing plans. The most basic information to gather for control is level of attendance. Our records allow us to identify both how many faculty have attended and who they are. Thus we know, for example, that at UMD from Spring 1984 to Fall 1986, 269 faculty members

attended at least one workshop. These faculty represented disciplines in each of UMD's collegiate units. At UNI in a similar time span faculty from all but two departments in all three colleges, librarians, counselors, and administrators were represented among those attending workshops. Many of these individuals came to more than one workshop.

A more in-depth method of control is the use of evaluation forms. An evaluation form designed for each workshop allows you to include workshop-specific questions to determine if cognitive and affective goals were met. You can also gather information needed for evaluating the effectiveness of your program. Always leave space for workshop topic suggestions and additional comments.

The control stage of marketing is both the official completion of the workshop and the beginning of new marketing activities. Take the time to record original sign-ups, actual attendance, and returns of evaluation forms in your data base. Summarize evaluations and send the results to the presenter with a letter of appreciation. In the letter also be certain to ask if all financial commitments have been met.

If participants expressed interest in any follow-up groups or activities, conscientiously address their requests. Circulate materials of interest. Convene a follow-up discussion. Follow-up groups help achieve networking, promote your service and make faculty feel their needs are being met. Publish faculty reactions to workshops and provide the opportunity for major points to be shared by all faculty via your newsletter.

CONCLUSION

Identifying and striving to meet the needs of our constituencies rather than trying to sell them something that they don't want or value has been the most important part of the marketing approach to workshops for us. We have also found that the process orientation of marketing with attention to the "3 p's" at each stage keeps us focused on the important things we need to know and do as we plan and present workshops.

Finally, we can't neglect to mention the most important "p", politeness. Remember every rule of courtesy your mother ever taught you because you will need to put them all to use to manage a workshop effectively. Without support, your workshop

can fall apart before your very eyes. Be especially supportive to your secretary, the food service people, the room scheduler, the printer, the janitors, your presenter, and anyone you may have to call upon for help. If it is possible for anything to go wrong, it very well may—unless you follow the guidelines we have outlined. Good luck!

NOTES

1. The principles of marketing presented here are basic to marketing and can be found in any introduction to marketing textbook. Since most of us work in nonprofit institutions, Christopher H. Lovelock and Charles B. Weinberg's *Marketing for Public and Non-profit Managers* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1984) may be especially appropriate.

APPENDIX A

Sample Faculty Needs Assessment Survey

Instructional Development Interest Survey

As an initial step in implementing the Instructional Development Service, information is being collected concerning the interests and needs of the faculty. Please complete the following survey.

Name _____

Campus Address _____

Campus Phone _____

1. Are there particular topics you would like to have presented in workshops or lectures? _____ If so, what are they?

2. Are you interested in participating in forums where your instructional theories and practices could be shared? _____ Are there specific topics you would like to discuss?

3. Are you interested in using the Individualized Consultation Service during the next year? _____ Would you like more information about the Individualized Consultation Service? _____

4. Please indicate in what areas you would like library materials on teaching expanded:

Classroom Approaches:

_____ General overview
_____ Presenting effective lectures
_____ Leading discussions
_____ Asking questions
_____ Teaching large classes
_____ Facilitating groups
_____ Utilizing undergraduate and/or graduate teaching assistants
_____ Assisting disabled students in the classroom.

Learning Process and Theory:

_____ General overview
_____ Developmental stages
_____ Critical thinking
_____ Working with non-traditional students
_____ Non-academic issues affecting student learning
_____ Understanding the student of today
_____ Sexism and racisim in the classroom

Technology in the Classroom:

_____ Use of viedo tape
_____ Computer assisted instruction

Instructional Aids:

_____ Textbook selection
_____ Developing syllabi
_____ Test design
_____ Writing test questions

Other:

_____ Promoting effective writing
_____ Grading
_____ Incorporating study skills into a course
_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____

Do you have any additional suggestions, comments, or questions about the program?

Thank you for your time.
Please return this survey to:

Instructional Development Service
Supportive Services Program
Library 134

APPENDIX B

Successful Workshop Topics

INSTRUCTIONAL WORKSHOPS

The Classroom: A Chilly Climate for Women
Cultural Diversity: Issues and Opportunities
An Introduction to Microcomputers
The Art of Constructing Writing Assignments
Design and Construction of Computer-based Instructional Materials
Tips for Teaching Large Classes
Computer Generation of Tests and Test Scoring
Asking Questions and Stimulating Thinking
Discussion Techniques
The Feedback Lecture
Understanding Student Intellectual Development
The Computerized Grade Book
Students Working Cooperatively: A Powerful Way to Learn
Looking at Learning Styles
Achieving Educational Excellence
Support of Computer-based Instruction (series)
College Teaching and the Development of Reasoning

PROFESSIONAL WORKSHOPS

University Researcher's Network
Getting Published/Working at _____
Doing Research/Working at _____
Integrating Personal and Professional Growth
Career Planning for Faculty
Doing Scholarly Writing
Career Discussion Groups
Faculty Writing Support Group
Mid-life/Mid-career: Where do we go from here?

PERSONAL WORKSHOPS

Is There Life After Retirement?
Coping With Stress
Implications of the New Tax Law
Appealing Your Property Tax Assessment
Time Management
Intimacy and Personal Relations
Working/Living with Aging Parents

APPENDIX C

Sample Newsletter Advertisement

Upcoming IDS Workshops . . .

Begin Fall Quarter right by treating yourself to some educational experiences!

"SUCCESSFUL INSTRUCTION" SERIES Continues . . .

SUCCESSFUL INSTRUCTION WITH INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Presenters: Bob Kosuth — ESL Instructor, English Department
Bruce Rutherford — International Student Advisor
Leane Rutherford — College Writing Instructor for International Students

Thursday, September 25 1:00-3:00 p.m. Kirby 355-357

Fortunately, each year the UMD student population becomes culturally richer and more diverse. Approximately 200 international students will attend UMD this fall. To find the most effective methods to help all our students learn, we need to be educated in cultural differences and similarities. Heightened awareness will enable us to communicate information in understandable contexts.

Presenters will describe foreign students with reference to educational background, funding, and culture. Culture and logic as they affect writing and classroom performance will be explored. Reasonable expectations and appropriate standards for second language learners will be discussed. Awareness is needed by educators so adaptations can be made in the classroom to give all our students the best educational instruction possible.

SUPPORT FOR COMPUTER-BASED INSTRUCTION SERIES

Presenter: Dr. Stanley Trollip, Director of Project Assist
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
College of Education
University of Minnesota

Part I DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS for COMPUTER-BASED INSTRUCTION
Wed., Oct. 8, 1:00-4:00 Kirby 355-357
or
Thurs., Oct. 9, 9:00-12:00 Kirby 355-357

The overall design characteristics that must be taken into account when constructing educational software will be discussed. Needs, instructional strategies, cognitive considerations, major methodologies, tutorials, drills, and simulations will be covered.

Part II AN INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN MODEL
Wed., Oct. 15, 1:00-4:00 Kirby 355-357
or
Thurs., Oct. 16, 9:00-12:00 Kirby 355-357

A nine step design model which begins with the original conception of your idea and ends with an evaluation process for your completed project will be presented by Dr. Trollip, who has concentrated on the instructional uses of computers for the past 16 years. He will answer questions and guide you through this instruction design model.

DETACH and RETURN To:

Linda Hilsen, Instructional Development Service, Lib 138

SUCCESSFUL INSTRUCTION WITH INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

☐ I plan to attend SUCCESSFUL INSTRUCTIONAL WITH INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS on September 25 from 1:00-3:00 in K355-357.

☐ I have a conflict but would appreciate having this workshop repeated at a future time.

SUPPORT FOR COMPUTER-BASED INSTRUCTION

I plan to attend Part I: DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS FOR COMPUTER-BASED INSTRUCTION. (Designate which session)

☐ Wednesday, October 8 from 1:00-4:00 in K355-357.
☐ Thursday, October 9 from 9:00-12:00 in K355-357.

I plan to attend Part II: AN INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN MODEL. (Designate which session)

☐ Wednesday, October 15 from 1:00-4:00 in K355-357.
☐ Thursday, October 16 from 9:00-12:00 in K355-357.

NAME _____ DEPT _____ PHONE _____

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Strengthening Faculty Development Programs Through Evaluation

Ann Ferren and Kay Mussell
The American University

Research on faculty development suggests that a college can choose from an extensive range of activities in designing a faculty development program, but that an institution is limited to a development process that matches faculty expectations—or it risks failure. William Nelsen (1979) reported in his study of twenty faculty development programs that "*how* a college carried out its faculty renewal program was equally important, perhaps more important, than *what* it proposed to do." Although Nelsen found considerable information on program activities, few institutions could describe with much clarity or consciousness their thinking about the process of faculty development. Consequently, when the College of Arts and Sciences at American University received a grant to support faculty development, our initial planning focused primarily on how to carry out a program that made sense in our own institutional context. At the same time, however, we sought an evaluation process to complement our particular program and to enable us to assess our activities and success after the first few years. It is the procedure and the results of that evaluation that we describe here.

Drawing on guidance from others and our own preliminary needs assessment, we designed a "faculty-responsive" program characterized by faculty involvement in planning, voluntary participation, open access to activities, flexibility in program

services, regular communication about the program, and systematic evaluation of individual projects. The College established an Office of Faculty Support, with a modest collection of reference materials, including books on teaching strategies, curriculum development, grants, and evaluation procedures. The primary resource of the office, however, was the Director, a person with time, ideas, money, and a concern for individual faculty members. All ideas, small grants, and workshops were approved by the Faculty Steering Committee, which represented the curriculum fields of the college. The office publicized activities widely within the college, and a quarterly newsletter reported regularly on funded projects. Each semester, the formal schedule was laid out in advance, and faculty members could sign up for several projects or activities. At the same time, the Director and Steering Committee targeted particular faculty members to be specially invited to workshops, either for their expertise or their expressed needs. Additional projects and services were planned as issues arose. Faculty members could participate often or not at all, and individuals frequently had several projects going at once.

From the beginning, the Faculty Development Program had multiple aspects. The Director met with departments, with chairpersons, and with individuals to publicize project guidelines and to learn about perceived needs. The Steering Committee sponsored workshops on such common issues as effective teaching, writing instruction, computer literacy, and sabbatical planning. Individuals could apply for small grants to fund teaching materials and other professional development. Departments were encouraged to use faculty development resources in assessing their own continuing and future needs. Individuals could request classroom visits and confidential assessments of their teaching strategies by the Director. Throughout, the Director and the Steering Committee concentrated on supporting faculty members' expressed needs, giving special consideration to those requests that improved teaching effectiveness. In addition, the Director and Steering Committee remained flexible in response to applications, always remembering that the program should be open to changes in direction. After establishing a faculty-responsive program, we turned to the design of a "program-responsive" evaluation process.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

A review of the literature on faculty development provides valuable guidance for program design; unfortunately, there is little guidance available for designing effective evaluation (Stordahl, 1981). Evaluations of faculty development programs often have been accused of being self-serving and unrealistic. The need for evaluation is clearly established, but successful models for evaluation are woefully underdescribed.

The usual approaches to education program evaluation, including experimental and quasi-experimental designs, are inappropriate to a program aimed at serving everyone. The control group, in our case, would have been self-selected non-participants; and the experimental group would have differed considerably, for it consisted of enthusiastic volunteers with clear needs. In addition, faculty development program evaluation is problematic because the multiplier effect is at work. As a program continues over time, additional participants become involved through the recommendations and enthusiasm of colleagues. Projects that initiate faculty into thinking about teaching strategies, for example, become more sophisticated as participation grows. Barriers to participation shift. It is difficult to pinpoint an appropriate time frame for measuring program effects.

In one of the few analyses of faculty development program evaluation, Jon F. Wergin (1977) confirms that ". . . Evaluation should reflect the nature of the program." If careful attention should be paid to how a program is carried out, we concluded that how a program is evaluated would also be important. Consequently, we designed a non-intrusive formative evaluation process to be congruent with—indeed, to reinforce—the nature of the program. On an annual basis, the program had used traditional data-gathering procedures: statistics on participation; narrative assessments of faculty projects; and ratings of workshops for participant satisfaction, appropriateness, and applicability. While we knew how each activity or project had fared, we also needed to evaluate the program's cumulative progress toward meeting its overall goals and to provide guidance for mid-course corrections.

Consequently, we were persuaded by Wergin's strong advocacy of the case study method, which can make use of all

historical documentation in addition to data "from both the consumer's and the practitioner's view." Such an in-depth analysis relies on data-gathering from a variety of sources and a careful analysis based on "convergence of findings" and "probable explanations of disagreements" (Wergin 1977).

METHODS AND DATA SOURCES

Four faculty members were selected to serve as an evaluation team. One had been a member of the Faculty Development Steering Committee during its crucial first year and was widely recognized on campus for academic leadership. One was from another college within the University; he had no contact with this program but he had evaluated faculty development programs for other universities. A third was an untenured faculty member who had not participated in the program during its first two years. The fourth, the team's chair, had been familiar with the program in its early stages but had been away from the University on a full-year sabbatical. She had been appointed to the Faculty Development Steering Committee and was to use the evaluation work as a "quick orientation" to the program.

The evaluation team had access to the program's extensive written documentation, which included an effective mechanism for keeping track of grant projects and for reporting to the faculty on grant activities. The files in the office were thorough and impressive; the newsletter spread the word through short articles on areas of broad faculty concern, listings of all grants approved, reports on workshops, and announcements of upcoming activities. Quarterly director's reports to the Dean of the College outlined progress toward meeting program goals, reported on perceived needs within the college, and proposed strategies for meeting developing priorities. A content analysis of these data was the essential starting point for the program evaluation.

The primary question guiding the evaluation team was not "What has been accomplished?" but "How have faculty members been affected?" If the Faculty Development Program had been judged only on its activity level and its success in reaching large numbers of faculty members in each department, the evaluation team's work would have been completed after one

meeting. The program had been active, its director had high visibility, and over 80 percent of the faculty had participated. By any traditional measure, the program was a success.

But the team agreed from the beginning that faculty perceptions about the program and real changes in behavior would be more significant and valuable than impressive records and statistics. Consequently, participation in an activity or gross numbers of involved faculty members would not be enough to demonstrate success. Instead, the evaluation should measure impact through the attitudes, behaviors, and commitments of the participants over time. The team gave special attention to the effects of the program's process: open access to all activities, ease of application for grants, an effective mix of projects for individuals and groups, and overall responsiveness to specific needs articulated by faculty.

The evaluation team sent a questionnaire to each of the 230 faculty members in the College. The response rate was almost 25 percent in two weeks, and completed forms continued to return for a month after the evaluation ended. Some faculty members did not respond because they had not been involved, by their own choice. Others were too busy to fill out the form. Those are the facts of life in the College, and it was essential to the spirit of the evaluation to use only the data that were freely forthcoming rather than press for a response from additional faculty.

The heart of the evaluation process was interviews. We selected 30 faculty members to be interviewed in depth—a minimum of one hour of discussion focused on both the activities of the Faculty Development Program and the individual's own priorities as a scholar and teacher. We aimed for a broad range of potential responses by selecting faculty from various categories: tenured and nontenured, active or inactive in faculty development projects, from different departments, and with different priorities—from those whose primary concerns were in teaching to those with reputations as effective scholars. We paid special attention to how the program might address individual priorities in its next two years.

We had, then, the records that provided the rationale for the program, the description of activities, and evidence of how the program had evolved. We had a sample of faculty responses to help us focus on strengths and weaknesses. And finally,

we had rich information from the interviews against which the other data could be tested for evidence of intensity of feelings of support, relative merits of each type of activity, commitment to maintaining or de-emphasizing parts of the program, changes in behavior, and readiness for new directions. As the evaluation team used these three data sources to identify the real effects of the program on the College as a whole, the results reaffirmed the effectiveness of the case-study method of evaluation.

FINDINGS

The findings from the evaluation provided evidence of program success as well as directions for the future. The findings were both unique to the program being evaluated and indicative of the impact that faculty development can have on a campus.

Perhaps our most important finding was that collegiality and morale in the College had been substantially improved--not because of any specific activities of the program (although each respondent cited preferences among the range of options) but through the simple existence of the Faculty Development Program in the first place. This was not an insignificant finding. Over and over, in every context, faculty members cited the value of increased collegial contacts.

Workshop participants mentioned the value of discussing common problems with people they had never met before. Those who had attended the writing workshops, for example, were particularly articulate on this point. Many reported that the most valuable result of the workshop was simply talking to others who shared their concerns about the quality of student writing and who wanted to hold students to higher standards. Many reported that before the workshop they had despaired of teaching writing in addition to the disciplinary material they had to cover in each course.

Another activity that was universally praised was the annual faculty colloquium, a three-day seminar of readings, presentations, and discussions among interested faculty members from all departments. Many had never heard colleagues talk about their areas of special expertise; and few had engaged in intellectual discussion of common issues with persons outside their own departments. We discovered that faculty members were not only willing to commit time to preparing for

the colloquium, but that participants felt enriched by the opportunity to discuss "real issues and ideas" with colleagues instead of meeting only in committees and department meetings that focus, inevitably, on "housekeeping." The value of the colloquium cannot be overstated. Faculty members expressed admiration for the quality of their colleagues' work. They requested more opportunities to interact on professional levels, and they were eager to suggest future topics.

Respondents also reported increased efficiency and effectiveness in other college activities because information about colleagues' interests and activities was no longer a secret. We had discovered, then, that communication in the College, which had long been a problem, had been improved through the Faculty Development Program. Others reported improved morale because they knew there was one special place on campus where someone cared about their needs. The program was a boost to morale even for those who did not participate directly, because it indicated administrative commitment to faculty concerns.

Although the Faculty Development Program had not miraculously solved everyone's problems, few respondents cited the program or its activites as a source of concern. Many needs were beyond the scope of the Faculty Development Program. A few respondents criticized specific grants they perceived as wasteful. In several cases, the evaluation team members were able to correct erroneous perceptions and to defuse negative attitudes toward the College. We learned that dissemination of all program information had been important to avoid resentment.

These findings supported others indicating that the interactive process of the Faculty Development program was as important as the actual funds disbursed. Most of the grants were for relatively small amounts of money, but it was clear that even very small grants had made a significant difference in the way a faculty member's work proceeded. The purchase of a set of slides for a course or the payment of a fee for an in-service training session could energize the recipient for months. In addition, faculty members appreciated the faculty leadership of the program. They commented specifically on the supportive role of the Director and the care, frugality, and apparent thoughtfulness of their colleagues on the Steering Committee

when considering grants and projects. Clearly, the careful attention to process had an impact on support for the program.

The evaluation team's recommendations to the Steering Committee spoke to several issues for the future. Research support emerged as the most important unmet need in the College. The team suggested that the committee continue its workshop offerings but that it move in new directions, specifically to address student perceptions of teaching effectiveness, encourage small group interaction, and support computer usage. In addition, the team recommended that one additional faculty member be appointed to the Steering Committee. The team also noted that the program's commitment to support of courses for the University's new General Education Program had been ineffective and should be a high priority issue in the future. Overall, the evaluation report recommended that the Faculty Development Program continue its concern for individual faculty needs, maintain a "responsive" process, continue its past focus, and expand in some new directions.

The Steering Committee responded positively. Within a year, a project for research support had begun to address research and equipment needs for faculty at all levels, from the most productive to those who were just beginning their careers. The computer workshop was expanded to include large and small working groups and demonstrations on microcomputers. Additional writing workshops began on a successively higher level of discussion than previous sessions, indicating that dissemination on this issue had moved beyond the original workshops participants. A successful workshop on student perceptions of teaching brought together students and faculty to share common concerns. The Steering Committee sponsored a workshop on course design for the new General Education Program.

IMPLICATIONS

A "faculty responsive" program benefits from "responsive evaluation" for several reasons. The opportunity to respond to a questionnaire reminded faculty members of the program's commitments to general support of their individual needs. It gave us the opportunity to reiterate guidelines and priorities, which in turn encouraged faculty members to apply for funds.

It identified activities that should be continued or expanded and targeted others that had reached the limits of their effectiveness. It prompted a reorientation of priorities in the areas of research and attention to student perceptions. In addition, by allowing us to check our formal data sources against faculty perceptions, it provided the Steering Committee with a more complex and sophisticated sense of its mission.

Initially, we decided to evaluate our program because it was the "right thing to do." In retrospect, it was important in its own right. The evaluation process itself was a catalyst for the program's future direction. And if we can make any predictions about the future of faculty development in higher education, formative evaluation on a regular basis will be essential to assure that programs evolve and remain effective.

First, formative evaluation accomplishes exactly what its design implies: it allows a program to develop, maintain, and correct itself. Because faculty development is a fluid, dynamic process, information-gathering is essential in facilitating and shaping its evolution. Formative evaluation can prevent the complacency of thinking of a program as "being in place," and it assures that the program continues to evolve with care and thought.

Second, formative evaluation can ward off and, in our case, overcome major setbacks. A program will not die an unexplained death, subject itself to the stigma of irrelevance, or incur accusations of administrative callousness if it pays careful attention to participant perceptions. The General Education Program we were to help support bogged down in political and administrative squabbles. The evaluation team members served as advocates for "forgiveness" and kept the Faculty Development Program from being tainted by a curricular failure that was beyond its control.

Third, while the information was significant to the Steering Committee in planning for the future, the opportunity to be heard was an improtant shot in the arm for participants as well. It underscored the program's commitment to respond to faculty needs; and the reported results of their colleagues' evaluation added to the positive attitudes that had been developed by the "faculty-responsive" program. In some cases, the evaluation also made it possible to re-shape expectations.

Fourth, formative evaluation serves as an ongoing needs

assessment. Since the success of a program depends on meeting faculty needs—needs that are never static—there must be a legitimate and focused way to assess the changing priorities of both the institution and the faculty. It takes time for faculty members to trust a program and ask for support for their genuine needs. In our case, few faculty members were willing to state at the outset that they needed help with teaching. As teaching workshops promoted confidence in the program, however, faculty members identified their own concerns and urged the program to provide support.

CONCLUSIONS

Since faculty development programs are designed to fit unique institutional contexts, program evaluation need not be concerned with replicability. The case study method is both appropriate and informative, for it is sensitive and subtle enough to match a program's process without interfering with its ongoing direction. A program can change goals or procedures with no threat to the validity of the findings. Maturation, which is a threat to internal validity under experimental conditions, is essential to the success of faculty development programs and can be reinforced by "responsive evaluation."

The twin processes of development and evaluation can proceed in a complementary and interactive way. Our program was designed to be responsive; but it is clear that faculty development as we have known it is going to change. It has been a luxury to focus on individual interests such as improved teaching, innovative curricula, new ways to handle lectures or labs, or travel to conferences. In the coming years, however, faculty development will be less an opportunity than a necessity.

If faculty development is to have meaning and support, it must match the needs of *both* the institution and its faculty members. The very real pressure that steady-state planning places on faculty utilization will mean that faculty support must have two emphases: those activities that are chosen by faculty members to meet their individual needs as scholars and teachers *and* those activities offered by the university to encourage faculty members to match the needs of the institution. At best, institutional priorities and faculty development should reinforce each other. A faculty development

program that is "responsive," through its process and ongoing evaluation, can provide an essential link between the development priorities of institutions and individuals.

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PART IV: PRACTICE
Improving Teaching and Learning

We come now to the practice of teaching improvement, the bread-and-butter of most faculty development programs. The articles in this section describe programs that range in purpose from training foreign teaching assistants to offering Supplemental Instruction without benefit of a "Supplemental Budget."

The first piece in this section details the training needs of faculty who find hearing-impaired students in their classes. The authors, Karen Conner and Harry Lang, describe a training model for institutions with small numbers of deaf students, and identify benefits for teaching quality in general resulting from participation in programs designed to improve teaching of the hearing impaired.

Many faculty development programs offer training for teaching assistants. Through such training, developers have an opportunity to socialize the next generation of faculty in the direction of valuing teaching skills and developing a good foundation for subsequent success as teachers. In this domain of practice, Jody Nyquist and Ann Staton-Spicer explore several unconventional but research-based strategies for developing presentation skills of teaching assistants; Rosslyn Smith and Len Ainsworth describe a program that has successfully responded to a major institutional need, helping foreign teaching assistants learn to communicate effectively with students in their classes.

Finally, we encounter the realities of academic life as experienced by a faculty member, Breck Peters, who wants to help his students do well in an intellectually challenging course, and who wants to offer them the benefits of Supplemental Instruction (SI), but whose department budget cannot provide the funds for a student "specialist" to conduct SI sessions. His solution won't suit all, but it will offer hope to those who doubt their students' capability for college level work.

Teaching the Hearing-Impaired College Student: Current Practices in Faculty Development

Karen Conner and Harry G. Lang
National Technical Institute for the Deaf
Rochester Institute of Technology

Deaf college students, like their hearing peers, value teachers who have extensive knowledge of course content, exhibit positive interpersonal skills, and are open to different points of view (Zieziula, 1981). There are other characteristics college professors can develop, however, that will benefit students with hearing losses, and which have implications for faculty development. One characteristic, in particular, is the instructor's understanding of deafness as an educational condition. In institutions where small numbers of deaf students are enrolled, is this concern one that faculty developers share? Is it feasible to provide special offerings pertaining to deafness when enrollments remain small? What are the benefits for all students in the class when faculty concern themselves with the special needs of deaf students? This paper examines the need for attention to the educational characteristics of deaf students. Strategies currently in use are described to illustrate the wide variety of approaches that are possible. We present a framework for faculty developers and support service professionals to address deaf students' educational characteristics, and we discuss benefits for faculty who participate in programs designed to help them address these students' needs.

In a recent survey, we asked faculty to comment on the need for programs on deaf students' educational characteristics. The comments of one respondent reflect the attitude of the

majority of those who completed our survey: "When educational institutions make a commitment to educate hearing-impaired individuals, they must be prepared to educate the staff. It is important that the faculty be comfortable with these students and that a positive environment be created." It was, in fact, a unanimous feeling among the survey respondents that faculty development programs should include components pertaining to deafness. While the need is apparent, the appropriateness of various faculty development strategies bears further scrutiny. We will look more closely at the results of the survey as we discuss ways in which faculty developers may approach this need.

Deafness, understandably, poses a communication barrier, A loss of hearing often restricts socialization and other education-related experiences to various degrees, and may hinder academic development. Consequently, deaf students may have greater needs for remediation when compared to hearing peers. Even moderately hearing-impaired students experience difficulty in receptive and expressive language skills and are not fully prepared for the college curriculum (Flexer, Wray & Black, 1986).

Frequently, an interpreter accompanies the deaf student to class, presenting an unfamiliar scenario to the professor. Such a scenario is increasing in frequency, however. Prior to 1970, the number of deaf students enrolled in postsecondary institutions for hearing students was very low. Reports on unemployment and underemployment of deaf persons and a growing concern among professionals in organizations serving deaf people led to Federal legislation to ameliorate the problem. In the first edition of *A Guide to College/Career Programs for Deaf Students*, Stuckless and Delgado (1973) reported 27 postsecondary programs serving 2,271 deaf students. Since then, the number of postsecondary programs with small enrollments of deaf students has increased considerably. The recent edition of *College and Career Programs for Deaf Students* (Rawlings, Karchmer, DeCaro, & Egelston-Dodd, 1986) lists two national programs and 136 regional programs having a coordinator of services for deaf students who devotes a minimum of 50 percent of his or her professional time to directing the program. Hundreds of other postsecondary institutions have smaller enrollments of deaf students with

little or no special support for either the students or the faculty. The current estimate of the total number of full-time and part-time deaf students attending colleges and universities throughout the United States and Canada is about 10,000 (Castle, 1986).

GUIDELINES FOR POSTSECONDARY PROGRAMS

In 1973, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf (CEASD) published its *Principles Basic to the Establishment and Operation of Postsecondary Programs for Deaf Students* (Stuckless, 1973). The report states that "in-service orientation and training of staff working directly with deaf students should be an ongoing activity" (p. 6). The report stressed that faculty in postsecondary programs should not be expected to cope with the special needs of most deaf students without special support, and that deaf students should not be expected to adjust readily to learning situations in which faculty are unaware of their special needs. The authors recommended a variety of educational formats, including formal presentations, consultation services, and organized training. They also emphasized the need for continuous, systematic orientation programs to assist professionals in developing a repertoire of knowledge and skills pertaining to the effective education of college-age deaf students.

Are current faculty development practices effective in bringing this knowledge about deafness to the classroom teacher? What are the needs of support service coordinators and faculty developers who may be interested in implementing the CEASD recommendations? In the process of answering these questions, we will propose a model for faculty developers to begin exploring ways to meet the specific needs of their colleagues.

WHAT ARE THE NEEDS?

In the Spring of 1986, the authors distributed a questionnaire to the 138 American postsecondary institutions listed in *College and Career Programs for Deaf Students*. Coordinators responsible for providing support services for deaf students were asked to identify their needs and the strategies they use

to assist faculty having deaf students in their classes. Other postsecondary institutions with deaf student enrollments may benefit from the results of this study since many of the strategies identified are appropriate for a variety of environments.

Of the 138 postsecondary institutions surveyed, 79 coordinators (57 percent) returned the questionnarie. Fifty-one (65 percent) of the respondents stated that their institutions have faculty development programs.

TABLE 1

Geographical Location and Number of Programs in Faculty Development Survey

Geographical Location of Programs	Number of Programs Surveyed	Number and Percentage of Programs Responding
Northeast	16	10 (62%)
Midwest	31	19 (61%)
South	45	25 (56%)
West	52	25 (48%)
Totals	138	79 (57%)

Table 1 shows the regional distribution of responding institutions. Their sizes ranged from small community colleges to large universities. The average percentage of full-time deaf students for the two-year colleges in this study is 1.1 percent. For four-year programs the average enrollment is 1.7 percent. These data indicate that even in the colleges with "larger" enrollments of deaf students, the number is relatively low.

Faculty development activities related to aspects of educating postsecondary deaf students were offered by 29 of the 51 support service programs. Hence, only 37 percent of the 79 responding institutions address the recommendations of the CEASD through formal faculty development programs. The remaining 63 percent of the coordinators in the support service areas find themselves responsible for orienting faculty to deafness outside of their institution-sponsored faculty development program.

Although 73 percent of the respondents stated that they believed they had appropriate or adequate resources, many provided explanations for not having implemented offerings pertaining to deafness in their postsecondary environments. Finding formats and content that motivate faculty to attend the planned offerings is a strong need. Another concern is a lack of coordinator time. This is especially a problem for coordinators responsible for students with handicapping conditions other than deafness, both those in centers such as "Disabled Student Services" or coordinators who work individually such as a "Counselor for Special Populations."

There is also a strong need for information, including brochures on successful strategies for mainstreaming deaf students on the postsecondary level, compilations of current resources available for faculty development, and information on preparatory texts for remedial work with deaf students. Other needs include data on enrollments, success rates, attrition, and academic entry levels of deaf students in postsecondary institutions in the United States; information on diagnostic testing, particularly for reading and writing skills; suggestions for applying ESL approaches to teaching deaf students; and information on interpreting services. The results of this survey suggest a need for national or regional conferences focusing exclusively on faculty development practices in postsecondary programs where deaf students are enrolled.

The concept of networking to share resources among faculty who teach deaf college students is a very important one. The Postsecondary Education Consortium (PEC) at the University of Tennessee, for example, has experienced success with its affiliate states, most of them in the South (Ashmore & Woodrick, 1986). PEC provides consultation and technical assistance in such areas as program accessibility and evaluation, staff practices and utilization, inservice training in deaf culture, American Sign Language, orientation to deafness, and the use of notetakers and other support services. Collaboration among colleges may be a beneficial strategy for many institutions which have small enrollments of deaf students. Through the establishment of networks, these institutions may identify effective faculty development practices, and improve remediation and support service programs. Importantly, networking provides increased opportunity to pool resources and to communicate

academic deficiencies more effectively to the K-12 programs.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT APPROACHES

A vast amount of literature is now available on the general characteristics of deaf learners (Moores, 1982; Lange, 1987). A number of studies have been conducted which have identified characteristics of successful mainstreamed college deaf students. In particular, Saur & Stinson's (1986) discussion on facilitating participation of deaf students in the classroom is informative. These educational researchers reviewed selected studies, finding that: (1) when deaf students are provided with appropriate support in college, their achievement reflects their ability rather than their degree of hearing loss, speechreading skills, or speech intelligibility; (2) their motivation is largely influenced by their sense of personal control and responsibility for success; and (3) although quality support services in the classroom are important, it is the responsibility and initiative of the individual instructor that enables deaf students to participate meaningfully in class activities and discussions.

Figure 1 illustrates a framework we have used for several years for incorporating information pertaining to deaf students within the context of a faculty development program. The model has five broad categories: Deafness, Communication, Teaching, Discipline Knowledge, and Organizational Knowledge.

STAGES

	Orientation	Integration	Creative
Deafness as an Educational Condition			
Communication			
Teaching			
Discipline Knowledge			
Organizational Knowledge			

The category "Deafness" encompasses instruction on the psychosocial, cultural, and learning characteristics of these students. Unless a simulated hearing loss (with a tinnitus masker, for example) is experienced over a period of at least a few hours, a college professor may not be aware of the effects deafness has on eye fatigue. Deaf students have difficulty in attending to several visual tasks simultaneously, such as following an interpreter, taking notes, and attending to details in a classroom demonstration. The importance of deaf students' reliance on the visual mode cannot be overemphasized. Since an interpreter is frequently "behind" the speaker, a deaf student may not feel comfortable jumping into a group discussion. Ambient noises, including those outside the classroom, are amplified by a hearing aid as well as the instructor's voice. And, importantly, the feeling of being "different" discourages some students from participation with their hearing peers. These are just a few of the implications of deafness that a college professor may learn through faculty development activities.

The category "Communication" includes information on expressive and receptive sign language and speaking, listening, and written communication skills of the teacher in preparation for the delivery of instruction. A typical session may also include a discussion of the reading and writing skills of deaf students, particularly those who learned English as a second language. The implications of the lag in language development for teacher-generated materials, especially tests and quizzes, are similar to the concerns educators have in regard to other second-language learners.

The last three categories (Teaching, Discipline Knowledge, and Organizational Knowledge) are similar to those topics found in traditional faculty development programs (for example, "teaching effectiveness" seminars, presentations on problem-solving and thinking skills, academic advising, student motivation, computer software demonstrations and training, and faculty discussions on the tenure and promotion processes).

The three stages of the model (Orientation, Integration, and Creative) provide for planning a range of activities from introductory to advanced skills and knowledge depending upon an individual's previous background and experience. Newly-hired faculty members at our college are frequently in the integrative or creative stages of "Discipline Knowledge" but in the

orientation stage of "Deafness" and "Communication."

Faculty development offerings pertaining to teaching deaf students can introduce innovative strategies and materials to the college professor. Such programs can also provide opportunities for faculty to identify concerns and to approach them with appropriate resources.

GENERAL FORMATS

Table 2 lists topics for faculty development programs on deafness, and indicates delivery formats reportedly used by survey respondents to convey this information to faculty. Survey respondents use a variety of human resources to reach the faculty, either collaboratively with faculty developers or

TABLE 2

Number of Programs Offering and Type of Staff Delivering Faculty Development Activities Pertaining to Deafness[a]

Faculty Development Topics	Number of Responses Per Topic	Director/ Program Coordinator Delivery		Support Service Staff Delivery		Consultants/ Outside Speakers Delivery		Other Programs/ Agencies Delivery	
		N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%
Overview of Education of Deaf Students	40	40	100	27	68	12	30	1	2
Language and Communication	39	34	87	27	69	11	28	4	10
Speech/Audiology	15	5	33	11	73	7	47	4	27
Teaching and Curriculum Development	32	24	75	20	62	7	22	3	9
Psychology of Deafness	30	22	73	15	50	6	20	3	10
Social/Cultural Aspects of Deafness	33	30	91	17	52	11	33	1	3

[a]Total number of responding programs was 79.

through the individual efforts of the coordinator and his/her staff. The use of outside speakers, particularly experts in the field of deafness, is restricted by limitations on funding.

Workshops and seminars in the respondents' institutions range in scope from comprehensive, one-day sessions during the opening week of the school year to one-hour department-level presentations. Some program coordinators have involved community agencies and personnel from local schools serving deaf students, including local programs for deaf adults, speech and hearing centers, centers for communication disorders and vocational rehabilitation offices. Workshops range from orientation experiences for new faculty to detailed discussions on using English as a Second Language (ESL) approaches to teaching deaf students for whom American Sign Language is their first language. Other strategies mentioned by survey respondents include videotapes of discussions by faculty and handicapped students who have developed successful strategies for teaching and coping; panels with deaf students, faculty, and interpreters; "silent retreats" on weekends for both faculty and students; and demonstrations and skits by deaf students showing effective teaching/learning strategies. One institution reported offering a formal "Studies in Deafness" course to its faculty. Open forums with language specialists, support service staff, and deaf persons have been found to be successful in a number of colleges and universities. In others, faculty are invited to luncheons with deaf students and interpreters for social exchange.

Individual consultations with faculty appear to be a common approach. This allows the discussion on deafness to be tailored to each professor's particular concerns. The amount of structure provided to such an approach varies greatly. In a number of institutions, a letter or brochure is sent to faculty members who have deaf students in their classes. Follow-up is then dependent on the individual faculty. Other coordinators prefer to use more aggressive strategies, including phone calls, personal notes, and appointments.

Other approaches include a "Professional Development Day" with faculty being released to attend activities (including sessions on deafness), or a campus-wide "Handicapped Awareness Day" coordinated by the student government association. Sign Language classes are offered to both students and faculty in a majority of these institutions. Evening or lunch-hour sign

instruction, including discussions on issues related to deaf awareness, is a popular format.

Are the recommendations of the CEASD being followed? The survey results indicate that a variety of formats, including formal presentations, consulting services, and organized training, are being used to some extent. No effort was made in the present study, however, to determine the efficacy and motivational value of the various strategies used to bring information about deafness to college teachers. Since the needs of the respondents who wish to implement continuous, systematic programs are largely unmet, there appears to be an opportunity for improved articulation between coordinators of support services and university faculty developers. Comments of the respondents indicated that the survey itself served as a catalyst for such collaboration.

IMPLEMENTING FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM OFFERINGS

How do support service coordinators and faculty developers begin to address this need? One of the first steps in planning faculty development activities which focus on educating deaf college students is to identify basic issues to be addressed. From these can be derived broad goals for program offerings. For example, most postsecondary educators with deaf students in their classrooms have a need for faculty development activities which will help them deal with the serious concern they have about remediation. Because of the nature of deafness and the effects it has on learning, the theory and practice of remediation appears to be a necessary integral component of any faculty development program. In the programs we surveyed, 50 percent of the two-year colleges and 18 percent of the four-year institutions offered special preparatory/remedial services to deaf students. While these services are not faculty development offerings *per se*, their availability should be communicated to the classroom teacher.

As with traditional faculty development programs, the involvement of faculty and administrators in the planning process and visible institutional support for the program will increase success (Eble and McKeachie, 1985). Since the number of deaf students enrolled in most colleges will remain relatively

small, needs assessments may have to be revalidated periodically.

Participants should have opportunities to follow up on group activities on an individual basis, with presenters helping them to apply the information gleaned from the presentation to their specific teaching, curriculum development, or counseling situations. The general needs identified in this survey for information on diagnostic testing, remediation, attrition, writing skills, and other topics may also be addressed by consulting the campus coordinator of support services or local school programs serving deaf students. Local agencies and faculty developers in neighboring colleges with established programs on deafness are also potential sources of information for meeting the needs identified by the faculty. The authors of this report would welcome letters of inquiry about specific informational needs.

Whether activities are coordinated by a formal faculty development program, by a support service program for handicapped students, or through a collaboration of these two, faculty should be integrally involved in planning and evaluation of the usefulness of the programs offered.

CONCLUSION

Expanding one's repertoire of skills and knowledge in order to teach non-traditional students, especially those with physical or sensory impairments, can be a rewarding experience. We have heard repeatedly from professors who claim that efforts to enhance their teaching to meet the special needs of deaf students resulted in improved learning for *all* students in the classroom. Whether it is a simple strategy such as writing homework assignments on the board or the more challenging task of avoiding linguistically-loaded test items on a final exam, each effort will be sincerely appreciated by the student with a hearing loss.

Support services have frequently been advocated for the college deaf student. We must provide effective "support services" to their instructors as well.

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NOTES

1. Dr. Conner is a Professor in NTID's School of Business Careers. Dr. Lang is the Coordinator of the Office of Faculty Development and a Professor in NTID's School of Science and Engineering Careers.

It's Working: A Training Program for Foreign Teaching Assistants

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While much of the nation's attention is focused on our dependency upon foreign oil, foreign automobiles and foreign technology, members of the academy recognize a growing reliance upon another important but less well recognized resource, foreign teaching assistants (FTAs) in our colleges and universities. As fewer American citizens undertake graduate studies, many of them moving directly into high paying jobs in industry, both the number and proportion of foreign graduate students holding teaching assistantships increases.

Although accurate national statistics are difficult to obtain for all disciplines, data from the American Mathematical Society may best illustrate the current situation. In 1972-73, 1042 doctor of philosophy degrees were granted in mathematics by American universities. Seventy-eight percent of those were awarded to American citizens. In 1984-85, only 750 doctorates were awarded in mathematics, which is a decrease of more than one fourth of the former level. Of those granted in 1984-85, only 55 percent were awarded to American citizens. Since 50 percent of the graduate students pursuing mathematics degrees in the United States at the present time are foreign born, we can expect an even greater decline in the percentage of doctor of philosophy degrees granted to American born students.

This influx of foreign students to American graduate education presents both opportunities and problems to our

institutions. On the positive side, the FTAs bring with them to the classroom a wealth of cultural information to share with their students. Their presence on American campuses helps to dispel the parochialism that sometimes characterizes our student bodies. Chandler (1985) points out that "the interpenetration of cultures through the exchange of students and scholars within an academic community is in itself a source of new knowledge and broadened perspectives" (p. 53). In addition, many FTAs have outstanding academic records and excel as researchers and students. Many also attain positions of influence in their native countries after graduation and as such serve as valuable contacts for American industry and commerce in marketing U. S. goods abroad.

The growing number of foreign TAs also causes widespread concern. Many American students resent the presence of foreigners as TAs even though the TAs have excellent knowledge of the subject matter. Some students ascribe their poor classroom performance to the limited English or unfamiliar teaching style of the FTA. The litany of complaints about FTAs, dealing primarily with their perceived inability to communicate effectively in English, has also aroused the attention of parents, university administrations, governing boards, and state legislatures. A number of states, including Missouri, Ohio, Florida, Minnesota, Kansas, Illinois, and Texas have either enacted or are considering legislation to require universities to evaluate and/or train foreign TAs before giving them teaching assignments.

NATIONAL AWARENESS

The so-called "foreign TA" problem has recently been in the national news from the *Chronicle of Higher Education* to *Newsweek on Campus*. Universities across the country are developing a variety of evaluation and training programs to address the problem. In a survey taken in 1982, Turitz (1984) identified only fifteen institutions, out of forty surveyed, with training programs for FTAs. Since the publication of Turitz' article, many more institutions have responded to the increasingly evident need to evaluate and train their FTAs.[1]

Perhaps the first national seminar on FTA training occurred in 1985 at a NAFSA (National Association for Foreign Student

Affairs) sponsored three-day meeting at Georgia State University in Atlanta. Senior program administrators from a dozen institutions met to discuss a wide range of issues including curriculum, testing, and administration. In 1986, a national conference on "Institutional Responsibilities and Responses in the Employment and Education of Teaching Assistants" took place at Ohio State University. In the published readings from the conference, over one fourth of the text deals with issues pertaining specifically to FTAs (Chism, ed., 1987). In July 1987 the University of Wyoming, with partial funding from NAFSA, hosted their second annual institute for program directors and instructors in the field of FTA testing and training. The first week of the institute addressed the needs of beginners in the field; the second week was an advanced workshop. On the regional level, Texas Tech University and NAFSA co-sponsored a two-day workshop for universities in Texas and Louisiana on the "Design and Implementation of FTA Training Programs" in May 1987. Finally, preconference workshops, panels, and papers relating to FTAs are now prominent in the programs of the national and regional conferences of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), NAFSA, and other professional organizations.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION[2]

Texas Tech University began a training and evaluation program for foreign TAs in 1980. This program differs from many others in several respects. First, the program is comparatively old and well established on campus. Second, the program did not arise out of a crisis situation, but rather evolved over several years from a summer pilot project with eight participants (Smith, 1982), to a year-round effort involving an average of thirty prospective FTAs annually. Finally, the teaching staff represents several departments on campus rather than being entirely from an ESL program or an instructional resource center, such as the Harvard program (Sarkisian, 1986).

Goals

The goals of the training program at TTU address the special needs of foreign TAs and the students they teach. These

goals are to:

1. orient students to the U.S., to the local environment, and to the university;
2. Acquaint participants with cultural variables that may affect them in the classroom;
3. develop understanding of the role of teachers in American higher education classrooms in terms of expectations, relationships with students, and responsibilities;
4. provide intensive training in English pronunciation and intonation and practice in instructional strategies and classroom communication skills;
5. provide follow-up assistance during the student's first semester of teaching through observation and individualized feedback;
6. provide reevaluation and training for those with unsatisfactory performance;
7. provide a forum for foreign TAs to discuss their classroom teaching problems and explore solutions.

Admission

Students enter the training program for prospective foreign TAs either by departmental and graduate school requirement or by departmental recommendation. International students receive teaching assistantships contingent upon successful completion of the TA workshop. This university requirement ensures that no non-native English speaker teaches without appropriate testing and training. Self-supporting international students or those employed as research assistants often wish to participate and may attend the summer workshop on a space-available basis.

Pre-Screening

Some departments use an informal pre-screening process before offering assistantships to students from overseas or from out-of-town. Students applying to the departments of math or chemistry submit a five to ten minute audiocassette tape of a lecture on a topic in their field. When the tapes arrive, the graduate advisor of the department and the director of the training program assess the student's potential in the classroom

and his or her likelihood of successfully completing the workshop. A holistic measure of overall comprehensibility is the primary criterion used in this assessment.

Testing

When the students arrive on campus for the three week summer workshop portion of the training program, they take the Michigan battery, a series of placement/diagnostic English tests developed by the University of Michigan. The battery includes a 100-item multiple-choice test of grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension; a 30-minute impromptu composition; and a 90-item multiple-choice, taped listening comprehension test. At the end of the workshop, the listening comprehension test is readministered to measure any gain in listening comprehension ability. At the end of the second week, students also take the SPEAK (Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit) test, published by the Educational Testing Service. The SPEAK score supplements the daily evaluations the instructors make of each student's speaking ability.

Students may also take the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (the MBTI), a psychological typing instrument based on the work of psychiatrist Carl Jung and used to identify learning styles. Students attend group or individual feedback sessions directed by a faculty member who is an authority on the Myers-Briggs. The MBTI makes the FTAs aware of their own preferences and sensitizes them to the varieties of learning styles they will encounter in the classroom.

Curriculum

In the summer workshop, students engage in a demanding schedule of classes and activities. There are four main components of the program: cross-cultural orientation, classroom communication, English, and a practicum.[3]

Cultural orientation. This unit lasts for 10-14 hours and includes (1) the phases of transitional adjustment, (2) definition of the terms culture, perception, communication, and values, (3) comparison of values using charts, film, case studies, and small group work, and (4) awareness of and expectations for change.

Classroom communication. This component runs from 22-26 contact hours. Topics covered include the definition of communication, intercultural adjustment, nonverbal communication, classroom communication, and classroom administration. Instructors give particular emphasis to teacher image, credibility, types of presentations, first impressions, handling conflict, and presentational skills.

English. The English component consists of 16-18 hours of pronunciation and intonation practice and evaluation. Students work on vocabulary in their field, reading aloud, consonant sounds weak and strong vowels, rhythm and sentence stress, some idiomatic expressions, and building listening comprehension skills.

Practicum. The practicum includes 16-18 hours of work integrating the skills being learned and making presentations which are videotaped. Students view the first taped presentation in class; they view the other two presentations individually with the instructor, at which time they receive personalized feedback. The topics of the taped presentations include (1) defining a term or describing a geometric shape or figure, (2) describing a process, and (3) simulating a classroom lecture or presentation including using visual aids and fielding questions. Other discussions focus on what makes a person a good teacher, the parts of a class (rapport building time, attention getter, content, and closings), general discourse signals, interactive discourse, handling questions, active listening, and question formation. Students also view and discuss brief videotaped segments of actual classroom or lab presentations by instructors at U.S. Universities.

Materials Used

Gary Althen's booklet *Manual for Foreign Teaching Assistants* has been used since its publication in 1981 as a basis for discussion. Students also receive a variety of locally developed materials to use in preparing talks, practicing pronunciation, and other workshop activities. Other texts consulted are Alison Lanier, *Living in the U. S. A.*; Hoopes and Ventura, eds., *Intercultural Sourcebook: Cross-Cultural Training Methodologies*; Edward Stewart, *American Cultural Patterns: A Cross-Cultural Perspective*, and Weeks, Petersen, and Brislin, eds.,

A Manual of Structured Experiences for Cross-Cultural Learning. There is no comprehensive FTA training text *per se* available at this time; however, Byrd, Constantinides, and Pennington have written a text that is in press and that should be a valuable asset to instructors.[4]

ADMINISTRATION AND STAFF

The TA training program involves several administrative units. The office of the Vice President for Academic Affairs and Research (VPAAR) authorizes and funds the program. Each year this office provides money for maintenance and operation, for the appointment of instructors, and for the housing costs incurred. The university realizes that requiring a three week training session prior to the fall semester could place an undue financial burden on students from out-of-town or overseas. Therefore this group of students receives campus room and board. Participants already in the Lubbock area provide their own housing and food.

Since all TAs are graduate students, the Graduate School assists in the identification of students who should participate. The Graduate School also enforces the requirements of attendance and satisfactory completion of the program.

Many other administrative offices and individuals cooperate in the implementation of the program. These include the deans of the participating colleges, the graduate advisors, the housing and budget offices, student services, and international programs.

The director of the English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) Program coordinates the training program and is responsible for most of the administrative details relating to the workshop. Specific duties include notifying departments of the workshop, making housing and scheduling arrangements, managing the budget, setting up the curriculum, locating and training teaching staff, fielding any questions about participation, and providing the pre-workshop information to participants. In addition to teaching a section of the program, the director also compiles the evaluations and makes a final decision on who passes, submits all final reports, and reevaluates later in the year students who did not pass.

The Office of International Programs plays an important role in the training program. They mail the students university

prearrival information, provide early processing on campus, assist in getting the students settled in campus housing, and provide orientation to the campus and community. The director of the Office of International Programs also teaches the cultural orientation section of the summer program.

Instructors for the classroom communication portion of the training come from the Department of Speech Communication. Both regular faculty and advanced graduate students have instructed during the summer. For the past three years an ESL instructor has also assisted the director in the English training of the students during the summer workshop.

RESULTS AND FOLLOW-UP

At the end of the workshop each instructor in the program submits a written evaluation of the participants to the director. In most cases departmental representatives view the final videotaped presentations of their students. This departmental review is extremely important since it gives the departments an opportunity to participate in the evaluation process and to have a better understanding of the training. The director compiles all the evaluations and places students into one of three categories. should not teach at this time, may teach with close supervision, may teach with routine supervision. In the past three years the percentage of students who successfully complete the workshop has been over 60 percent.

Students who do not successfully complete the workshop may pursue several alternatives. Some receive or continue on research assistantships, while other work as graders or technicians. Some enroll in ESL conversation or grammar and composition courses. Students who wish to be reevaluated at the end of the Fall or Spring semesters may present another talk in their field at a special evaluation session. The graduate advisor and one or more faculty members from the department attend, as well as the director of the training program and sometimes one or two American students. If a prospective TA has made sufficient progress since the last evaluation, he or she becomes eligible to receive a teaching assignment.

Departmental graduate advisors receive a list of students and their final rating, usually within one day of the end of the summer workshop. This notification includes any recommended

or required coursework in English. Departments may then offer assistantships to students and arrange other means of support for those who fail. Advisors also receive a detailed report of each student's English problems and progress within a few days. The Vice President for Academic Affairs and Research receives a summary report with copies to the Graduate School and all participating departments.

In 1984 the university began a follow-up course in the fall semester for those TAs who go through the summer workshop and subsequently teach. The course provides additional instruction in teaching skills and English pronunciation and intonation, and is a forum for students to ask questions or raise issues that concern them about their own teaching situations. The format of this course changed in 1986 to include classroom observations, additional videotaping, and tutorial sessions.

Since the training program began, departments report greater satisfaction with, and fewer complaints about the English proficiency of their foreign TAs. In general, graduate advisors and department chairs are enthusiastic about the results. Cooperating faculty develop sensitivity to the problems and potential of the teaching assistants. The foreign students who participate, although initially skeptical and somewhat resentful at having to attend, report high levels of satisfaction at the content and quality of the program. One indication of the success of the program is that in 1986, a foreign TA won the university outstanding TA award, and other FTAs are beginning to win departmental teaching awards.

IN SUMMARY

The evaluation and training program at Texas Tech is not a panacea for the problems inherent in using foreign TAs. It has, nevertheless, improved the quality of instruction and greatly reduced the number of student complaints. It is an example of cooperative approaches toward solution of a widespread problem. In the future we will be exploring ways to increase departmental participation in the program and to individualize the follow-up to a greater extent. We also hope to sensitize American students to the problems faced by the foreign TA, as well as heighten their awareness of the opportunities for cultural enrichment that the TAs bring to the classroom.

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NOTES

1. See Janet Constantinides (1987). "The 'foreign TA problem' —an update," *NAFSA Newsletter 38*(5), 3-6, for an overview of this issue, including resources available for developing and conducting training programs.

2. An abbreviated program description that focuses on curricular issues appears as "Foreign TA training at Texas Tech," (1987). In N. Chism (ed.). *Institutional responsibilities and responses in the employment and education of teaching assistants: Readings from a national conference.* Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Center for Teaching Excellence.

3. For a discussion of design factors to consider in program development, see Janet Constantinides, "Designing a Training Program

for International Teaching Assistants." (1987). In N. Chism (ed.), *Institutional responsibilities and responses in the employment and education of teaching assistants: Readings from a national conference*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Center for Teaching Excellence.

4. Readers interested in other materials may wish to contact Janet Constantinides, Department of English, University of Wyoming, for a catalog of materials from the Clearinghouse on International TA Training Programs.

Non-Traditional Intervention Strategies for Improving the Teaching Effectiveness of Graduate Teaching Assistants

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On campuses throughout the country, interest in improving college and university teaching abounds. Numerous national reports criticizing current undergraduate education (Boyer, 1987; NIE, 1984), increased demand for the use of qualified student opinion in faculty tenure and promotion decisions, and a growing number of publications addressing ways of improving teaching (Civikly, 1986; Eble & McKeachie, 1985; Furhrmann & Grasha, 1983; Katz, 1985; Lowman, 1984; Schön, 1983) all underscore the need to improve the quality of instruction, especially at the undergraduate level. Since graduate teaching assistants (TAs) play significant roles in the teaching of undergraduate courses, many research universities have increased their efforts to train graduate students to become more effective teachers. Bassett and Browning (1978) maintain that the future of departments depends upon high quality teaching by graduate teaching assistants. In 1986, Ohio State University brought together faculty, graduate deans, faculty developers and others to address these very issues at a national conference on "Institutional Responsibilities and Responses in the Employment and Education of Teaching Assistants."

How do we respond to the charge to improve the teaching effectiveness of graduate teaching assistants? Assuming that we can assess a graduate TA's teaching competence and identify target behaviors that need to be developed or changed, how

then do we go about intervening to produce the desired new behaviors?

Traditionally, there have been a number of different methods used to improve teaching. These have included course work, seminars, colloquy, workshops (O'Connell & Meeth, 1978), peer observation and critique (Centra, 1977), expert observation and critique (O'Connell & Meeth, 1978), team teaching (Eble, 1971), videotaping (Gibson, 1968; Popham, 1966), microteaching (Allen & Ryan, 1969; Johnson, 1976), and learning packets or resource materials. We, like others, have used many of these approaches to modify the behavior of TAs. Three of the methods—resource packets, collection and interpretation of student evaluations, and expert observation and critique—have become standard intervention strategies in our TA training programs at the University of Washington (Nyquist & Wulff, 1987; Staton-Spicer & Nyquist, 1979). Realizing, however, that no intervention strategy is applicable universally, we sought to expand our repertoire of useful strategies. We explored literature in various disciplines involved in modifying human behavior (e.g., social psychology, psychiatry, counseling) as well as education, and discovered three approaches which we believe can be developed to improve the teaching effectiveness of TAs.

The purpose of this article is to describe the three approaches, examine their previous uses, identify the advantages and disadvantages of each approach, and suggest appropriate applications for improving the teaching effectiveness of graduate TAs.

STANDARD-OTHER MODEL

Since many people believe that we "teach as we have been taught," the idea of imitating teaching models is not new. The particular use of the approach, however, does provide a unique way of influencing teaching behaviors.

In the standard-other modeling technique, the learner attempts to match his or her behavior to that of another person, the model, whose behavior provides a standard to be imitated. The underlying assumption of this technique is that observation of others can result in changed behavior on the part of the observer without previous enactment or reinforcement of the

behaviors. Grounded in social learning theory, this strategy has been labeled "modeling," "imitation," "observational learning," and "vicarious learning" (Bandura, 1969).

Modeling assumes that an observer can imitate new behaviors that are demonstrated by another person. These behaviors may take the form of a unique combination of previously learned behaviors or the use of previously learned behaviors in response to new situations. Models can be used to increase or decrease the frequency of behaviors and to facilitate previously learned but seldom demonstrated behaviors.

The technique of standard-other model involves a five step procedure:

1. The individual assesses a segment of his or her performance and identifies the behaviors that need to be acquired, eliminated, or changed. This is normally videotaped to preserve for comparison purposes.
2. The individual selects specific behaviors as target behaviors to adopt or modify.
3. The individual views live or media demonstrations of a model performing the specified behaviors appropriately.
4. The individual rehearses the behaviors and attempts to perform them in a given situation. Typically, his or her efforts are videotaped.
5. The individual, frequently in consultation with an expert, assesses behavior change by comparing his or her performance to the baseline tape.

Previous uses. This approach to modifying behavior has been widely used for various purposes: modeling pre-schoolers' responses to agressive acts through film, (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963) altering children's moral judgments (Bandura & McDonald, 1963), increasing decision-making behaviors among male and female high school students (Krumboltz & Schroeder, 1968; Meyer, Strowig, & Hosfrod, 1970), increasing interviewing skills (Krumboltz & Schroeder, 1965) improving counseling skills, (Throesen, Hosefor, & Krumboltz, 1969), and treating homosexuals who wish to become heterosexuals (Hosford & Rifkin, 1974). Modeling procedures have also been used successfully to develop or reduce a variety of responses in many counseling problems: marital communication, sexual inadequacies, and vocational and personal decision making (Bandura, 1977; Krumboltz & Thoresen, 1976; Thoresen & Hosford, 1973).

Finally, the standard-other model has already shown potential for improving teaching effectiveness. Hosford and Brown (1976) reported significant results for five TAs who improved specific teaching behaviors using the technique.

Advantages. There are several advantages of the standard-other model over other techniques. For instance, the method does not require that the person initially be able to approximate the target behavior. In addition, the use of the standard-other model can facilitate skill acquisition as well as the elimination of a variety of emotional responses (Bandura, 1969; Krumboltz & Thoresen, 1969; Thoresen & Hosford, 1973). Modeling or observational learning also seems to have the capacity to shorten the learning process (Bandura, 1969; Bandura & Huston, 1961). Finally, the technique is not as costly as other types of behavioral intervention since the investment of time comes primarily from the individual desiring the behavior change rather than counselors, consultants, and/or other experts.

Disadvantages. Despite its strengths, the use of the standard-other model does have certain disadvantages. First, acquiring an effective model for imitation may be difficult. Since each individual is working on specific, individualized behaviors, it is sometimes impossible to find live or videotaped models performing a particular behavior adequately and with sufficient frequency so that the behavior can be identified, selected from the total behaviors, and imitated.

Second, observation does not necessarily insure imitation. A variety of factors may enhance or hinder the imitative process. A model's social characteristics may influence the observer's ability to imitate the behaviors more than his or her willingness and ability to perform the behaviors (Grusec & Mischel, 1966). Such variables as the model's prestige (Krumboltz, Varenhorst & Thoresen, 1967), status (Lefkowitz, Blake & Mouton, 1955), power (Mischel & Grusec, 1966), and similarity to the observer (Hosford & de Visser, 1974) may affect the imitative process in positive ways. Or as indicated in some studies, observing another can produce negative reactions (McDonald, 1973). Perhaps viewing a person who is more competent than oneself on particular behaviors serves as a reminder of one's own inadequacies which may create anxiety and hinder subsequent learning (Thoresen, Hosford, & Krumboltz, 1969).

Such experiences seem to cause some individuals to devalue their own efforts (Bandura, 1977; Graham & Aidells, 1972) and thus work against behavior change. The personality characteristics of the observer can also affect the predisposition to participate in observational learning. For example, differences in behavior change can be attributed to differences in observers' authoritarianism (Epstein, 1966), dependency (Ross, 1966), and physiological arousal (Bandura & Rosenthal, 1966).

Application for teaching assistants. Given the success of the standard-other model in a variety of non-instructional settings, we believe it to be a promising intervention strategy for improving the teaching effectiveness of TAs. To utilize the model for changing teaching behaviors, the TA would assess his or her own performance in the classroom, usually with videotape to determine any deficiencies and to identify desired behavioral changes. The next step is to locate a tape or actual live demonstration of another person executing appropriately the specific behaviors the TA needs to acquire. The TA would then observe repeatedly the effective demonstration of the behaviors to be initated. This could be followed by rehearsal of the specific teaching behaviros. Having the TAs view the videotape of their performances at this point is extremely useful. The next step would be for the TA to try to reproduce the target behaviors with his or her own class. The final step would include assessment of the attempted behavioral changes.

The use of the standard-other model as an intervention strategy for improving teaching effectiveness appears to be most appropriate when the TA is attempting to acquire new teaching behaviors, since, in that case, modeling by another person is essential. For example, such skills as organizing a lecture, providing specific examples, asking particular types of questions, giving directions clearly, and providing verbal reinforcement are skills that can be imitated if an effective model is provided. In addition to these behaviors, TAs at the University of Washington have used the standard-other model for improving preciseness of delivery, drawing students into class discussion, responding in depth to student comments, and encouraging students to respond to one another.

SELF-AS-MODEL

The self-as-model intervention technique evolved from the use of the standard-other model and shares the same basic assumptions: observation can result in adding behaviors not previously in the observer's repertoire, and models can be used to increase or decrease the frequency of behaviors. In addition, advocates of the self-as-model technique believe that a model's characteristics influence the extent to which an observer can imitate the model; thus, a model of oneself would be the easiest to imitate.

The steps in the procedure include the following.

1. The individual learns how to observe and record his or her own behavior.
2. The individual identifies a variety of behaviors that are in need of change.
3. The individual selects a specific behavior to change, determines the desired level of performance, then takes base rates from previous tapings.
4. A consultant edits the previous tapings to create a positive model in which the individual is shown performing the behaviors in an appropriate manner. If there are no instances of the desired behaviors, a model tape is contructed from role-playing situations.
5. The model is observed repeatedly.
6. The individual monitors and records his or her own progress in achieving the desired behavior in actual situations (Hosford & Polly, 1975).

Previous uses. The self-as-model as an intervention strategy has already been widely used with a variety of problems. Psychologists using the procedure claim effective behavior change in cases of depression (Seitz, 1970), marital problems (Edelson & Seidman, 1975), sexual inadequacies (Hosford, 1975; Serber, 1974), and prison behavior of inmates (Hosford, Moss & Morrell, 1976). The technique has also been used for purposes of counselor training (Hosford, 1975) and microcounseling (Ivey, 1975; Ivey & Authier, 1978). Application in teacher training (Hosford & Brown, 1975) and student anxiety reduction (Hosford, 1974) lends support to the model's effectiveness in changing instructional behaviors.

Advantages. The self-as-model is consistent with research findings which suggest that greater sensory arousal occurs

when an individual observes himself or herself (Fuller & Manning, 1973). Several studies suggest that imitative learning is enhanced when an observer's perceived similarity to the model increases (Baron, 1970; Kazdin, 1974; Kornhaber & Schroeder, 1975). Thus, the observer is likely to attend more carefully to the model when that model is himself or herself. A further advantage is that the individual can become self-sufficient in the use of the process and systematically work on changing many behaviors, from the elimination of simple distracting personal mannerisms to high level cognitive functions. The process is straightforward, does not require a consultant once the technique is mastered, and fosters self motivation when the individual can see behavior change over time. An additional benefit to the participant, according to Braucht, is improved self concept (1970).

Disadvantages. Although self observation typically results in positive outcomes, some individuals may experience problems undergoing self confrontation. In certain instances self observation may reinforce negative views a person already holds (Schaefer, Sobel & Mills, 1971; Walz & Johnton, 1963) or may result in a person denying the behaviors he or she observes (Danet, 1968; Nielsen, 1964). In fact, for some individuals, the anxiety experienced during self confrontation seems to result in diminished subsequent performance.

To avoid such responses in the self-as-model procedure, individuals should not view instances of inappropriate behavior. The goal is to enable them to view themselves only when performing the behavior effectively. This requires an experienced editor to analyze the tape and edit the successful instances to construct a model tape. The process is extremely time consuming and eliminates one of the procedure's strengths, the possibility for complete self reliance in modifying behavior.

Application for teaching assistants. Even considering these drawbacks, however, the self-as-model procedure appears promising for modifying teaching behaviors. To implement this strategy, TAs must observe and record their own teaching behaviors, identify behaviors that need changing, select a teaching behavior on which to focus, construct an edited tape which provides instances of effective performance of the target behavior, view the tape repeatedly, and assess subsequent progress.

The process could be particularly useful for the extinction

of dysfunctional, idiosyncratic mannerisms such as verbalized pauses or inappropriate bodily movement or gesture. Such behaviors can be distracting to students and need to be eliminated.

A second appropriate use of the self-as-model occurs when a TA is attempting to increase the frequency of behaviors which exist in his or her repertoire but are seldom used. Such behaviors as higher order questions, providing more complete summaries during lecture, eliciting student responses, providing positive verbal reinforcements, and perception checking fall into this category.

VIDEO COACHING

A third non-traditional intervention strategy, video coaching, is a process of behavior modification induced by verbal prompting via a small transistorized ear plug (Nyquist & Wulff, 1982). The procedure requires special equipment whereby a prompter located away from the interaction situation can view the episode via videotape and simultaneously direct the person who is wearing the device to demonstrate specified behaviors.

The basic assumptions underlying video coaching are that verbal messages can enable individuals to adapt or modify their behavior instantaneously, that intervention in the midst of an interaction is preferred to intervention after the fact, and that individuals can attend to two sets of verbal stimuli in rapid succession. Video coaching requires a high trust level between the individual being coached and the person giving instructions. Such a system also presupposes a tolerance of and willingness to use technology as an aid in changing behavior.

The process itself is not complex and includes six steps for the individual desiring to change his or her behavior:

1. The individual meets with a consultant to set up behavioral goals for a particular interaction segment. These behaviors are normally based on a prior assessment of the individual's behavior in a similar situation.

2. The individual selects cues to be used by the prompter to enable the individual to reach the behavioral goals agreed upon.

3. The individual places a tiny, almost invisible, transistorized receiver behind the ear through which the prompter's voice can be heard.

4. The individual conducts a typical interview, counseling session, or classroom interaction modifying his or her behavior in response to the previously agreed upon cues from the prompter.

5. The prompter views the individual's performance through the live videotape and intervenes whenever appropriate with either short, prescriptive suggestions for behavior modification or positive reinforcement for behaviors assessed as effective.

6. The individual views the videotape of his or her behavior, including the verbal directions given by the prompter, to assess the degree of behavior change.

Previous uses. Video coaching has been employed as an intervention strategy in a variety of situations including the training of mental health professionals (Boylston & Tuma, 1972), teaching of parenting behaviors (Gordon & Kogan, 1975; Johnson & Brown, 1969), training of student clinical psychologists (Korner & Brown, 1952), teaching of behavior management skills to pedodontics students (Domoto, Weinstein & Getz, 1979), teaching of interviewing techniques (Ward, 1960), and the training of clinical psychologists, and university instructors (Nyquist & Wulff, 1982; Sanders, 1966).

Advantages. There are numerous advantages to video coaching. First, the technique provides intervention and/or reinforcement immediately following an individual's behavior. It eliminates the syndrome of "If you had only done it this way" that frequently accompanies the critique of performances after the event. This aspect of the strategy also allows the prompter to assess the impact and efficacy of his or her instructions to the individual. A second advantage is that the strategy guarantees the presence and resources of an experienced prompter. In therapy training, having a prompter or supervisor lowers the initial encounter anxiety level of inexperienced therapists and protects them from mishandling difficult situations (Boylston & Tuma, 1972). Initial studies with pedodontics students indicate that student dentists who received video coaching showed a greater increase in overall self-confidence than their peers who were not coached, although the change was not statistically significant (Domoto, Weinstein & Getz, 1979). A final advantage is that of student satisfaction with the procedure. In the two groups of pedodontics students, the video coached group identified its experience to be more positive

than the group who employed videotape critique following the students' performances. Eighty percent of the participants of video-coached groups reported they would recommend the experience to other students, while only thirty-three percent of the videotape critique group made similar recommendations (Domoto, Weinstein & Getz, 1979).

Disadvantages. Since the use of the strategy is limited and little data have been collected on its effectiveness in changing behavior, the known disadvantages are primarily technical ones. The demand for supervisor/consultant time is high, as the prompter must attend the entire session each time an individual is coached. Additional time must be invested in training prompters to intervene in specific ways (Gordon & Kogan, 1975). Equipment purchase and special videotape setups that allow the individual to move freely about the room also create problems for extensive use of the technique.

In addition, some individuals find the idea of being video coached offensive at first, and users must overcome initial resistance to the method. Establishment of a trust level between prompter and the person being coached is critical and takes some to develop. Two final disadvantages may exist: the process may create a dependency relationship between the individual and the prompter, and the trainee may have limited opportunity to develop his or her own style under such a system. These concerns need to be investigated before the effectiveness of the process can be fully assessed.

Application for teaching assistants. Even considering these disadvantages, however, video coaching offers possibilities for improving teaching effectiveness that other procedures do not. Intervening at critical times affords the opportunity of restatement and clarification. It also provides the TA with a second chance at many "teachable moments" which might not be recognized by a novice TA. TAs would need to set behavioral goals for improvement, identify specific teaching behaviors to increase or decrease, practice being coached until they could respond appropriately to the prompter's suggestions during the teaching act, teach a class session modifying their behavior on the basis of the prompter's cues, and assess the videotape for the desired behavioral changes.

The process seems particularly appropriate for improving highly interactive behaviors as in discussions when blocks of

instructor silence occur which allow for prompting cues. The pacing of such behaviors as asking higher order questions, eliciting student responses, and integrating student responses permits a prompter to cue a TA during moments of silences. The prompter can ask a TA to rephrase a question or response, provide a restatement for the TA to imitate, expand a question, or modify a recall question into an application question. The strategy appears to be most useful in instances where immediate intervention is critical. TAs using video coaching at the University of Washington have worked on such behaviors as interspersing lecture with questions, asking higher order (i.e., analysis, synthesis, evaluation) questions, increasing wait time when asking questions, and eliciting student questions for feedback purposes.

In this paper we have described three non-traditional intervention strategies, examined their previous uses, identified advantages and disadvantages of each approach, and suggested applications for TA training. While these techniques have been widely used for various purposes, they have not been used systematically or extensively for improving the teaching effectiveness of graduate TAs. We believe these approaches to be promising ones for changing specific teaching behaviors in the effort to enable graduate TAs to be highly effective in the classroom.

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Rescue the Perishing: A New Approach to Supplemental Instruction

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"I don't understand why I did so poorly. I read the books, I came to every class, I took notes, I came to the help sessions, I studied for hours. When I got to the test, I just couldn't do it. What can I do?" This is the question that tries an instructor's soul because the kneejerk response—"Try harder"—is ineffective, and because it arouses the convenient but unfounded suspicion that the admissions office has finally hit bottom.

If the conversation continues, the question is even more trying. Oh, we might mumble something about more regular study; that, it seems, is our favorite bit of advice. Or, we might suggest that the befuddled seek remedial help at the Learning Assistance Center. This, at least, gets them out of our offices and into someone else's across campus. None of this is very satisfying. We've never been to the Learning Assistance Center, so we don't know what goes on there, and we do know that regular study isn't the panacea we pretend it to be. We are caught in a dilemma of our own device. We've worked diligently to be sure that our courses require students to move to the application of ideas and beyond. And we know we've succeeded. Our students can't do what we ask, and there doesn't seem to be anything we can say or do to help.

Of course, the dilemma can be resolved through a series of machinations. On exams, we can conspire with students to transform legitimate application questions into memory

items by giving away the answers. We can contort our grading schemes to award A's and B's to students who couldn't apply a memorized principle to a new situation if their lives depended on it. We can give outrageously low grades to scores of students and tout that as a sign of a truly college-level course. But none of that is very satisfying either.

What would be satisfying is a scheme that would allow students to transform their abilities to read texts, to take notes, to study, and to take tests so that they—many of them—could learn to apply the principles and concepts of a discipline to new situations and problems. I believe such a scheme exists. It requires work on the part of the instructor, but, in the end, it promises to help students learn to think.

THE IDEA OF SUPPLEMENTAL INSTRUCTION

There are a goodly number of ideas that I wish I could claim as my own. This is one of them. But like evolution by natural selection and the Slinky, this idea is not mine. I found it, after considerable prompting by the Instructional Development Program at URI, in *The Journal of Higher Education* (1983). There, in an article entitled "Breaking the Attrition Cycle," is outlined a program of "supplemental instruction . . . designed to assist students in mastering course concepts and, at the same time, to increase student competency in reading, reasoning, and study skills" (p. 81). A perusal of the article reveals an operation in which "specialists" (often advanced undergraduates) attend "high-risk courses," take notes and complete assignments prior to conducting "three or four, fifty minute supplemental instruction sessions" each week. In these sessions, the "specialists" concentrate on modeling appropriate "thinking and languaging behavior" (p. 81), and on the use of the materials of the subject discipline as the vehicle for academic skills instruction.

No tortuous logic is required to see that the supplemental instruction program might offer a satisfying way out of the "good courses–befuddled students–no way to help" dilemma described above. Of course, supplemental instruction is well known to many instructional development personnel, thanks in part to a widely publicized endorsement by the Department of Education. There is nothing wrong in that; it is a good idea

that deserves praise.

The celebration of supplemental instruction has, however, drawn attention not to the underlying principles that make the idea a good one, but rather to the structure described in the *JHE*. The effect of this structural emphasis has, I think, institutionalized a single way of thinking about the idea. Now, when supplemental instruction is mentioned, it is discussed as a particular program, organized and implemented in a particular way.

For some campuses, this emphasis on the programmatic aspects of supplemental instruction is not a problem. They have the resources necessary to duplicate the now standard, specialist-centered program of supplemental instruction. Unfortunately, for most of us—both faculty and instructional development personnel—supplemental instruction in its full-blown, programmatic form is simply not feasible. We don't have the resources, we don't have specialists, nor do we have any hope of acquiring them. A program of supplemental instruction is for us only a hope, that, like so many in the academic world, begins with "If only we had more. . ."

All of this is true only so long as supplemental instruction is conceived as a program rather than an idea. What makes supplemental instruction work is not the particular structure in which it first appeared, but rather the principle of using materials from your course to provide your students organized practice in the academic skills most necessary for them to succeed in your grading system. Obviously, if it is to be employed, this principle requires some structure, but it doesn't have to depend on specialists, and it doesn't have to be expensive. So, for those of you who find the idea of supplemental instruction attractive, but who find the program prohibitively costly and complex, what follows is an alternative—in short, supplemental instruction on the cheap.

PRELIMINARY CONSIDERATIONS

Before beginning even a cheap supplemental instruction program, you should first be sure that your course requires students to do more than memorize the texts and the wisdom dispensed in your lectures. This is often not easy to do. Old habits are hard to break, and the tradition of asking students

to recapitulate your own comparisons and contrasts, your own explanations, and your own projections of the consequences of various theories is one of the hardest. If you want students to do a better job in memorizing what you and designated authors have said, don't bother with supplemental instruction; just be clearer about what it is that you want them to know. But if you want your students to move beyond memorization, and you have examinations and assignments that require them to do so, think seriously about supplemental instruction.

Second, you should be sure you know what you are getting into. Supplemental instruction is not a fancy substitute for standard "help sessions." It is not designed merely to review lectures, to answer questions, and to clarify fuzzy thinking. It is, rather, designed to provide instruction in academic skills (e.g., text-reading, note-taking, studying, examination-taking) in a context tailor-made for a specific course. Although "standard" review may constitute a part of supplemental instruction sessions, the development of skills should remain paramount.

In the specialist-centered, deluxe program of supplemental instruction, this distinction between review and skills development must be maintained by the specialist responsible for the conduct of the sessions. If you're doing supplemental instruction on the cheap, you'll be the specialist. This may, in fact, be an improvement. Who better to model academic skills on course material? Who better to create realistic practice settings? Who better to see to it that the session focus on skills and application not recitation and memory?

Once you've sorted through your course and decided that supplemental instruction is for you (and this is not a decision that should be made lightly because there is considerable work connected to it), you'll need to focus your efforts on specific skills. The rubric of "academic skills" is not sufficiently narrow to allow you to construct coherent, manageable sessions. Besides, if you advertise to your students the sessions you've planned (and you should; see below), you'll want to be able to say things like, "Tuesday we'll work on note-taking; Thursday we'll give you some practice in getting ready to take an exam; and next Tuesday we'll actually take a practice examination." That specificity is more attractive to students than the generic skills approach.

So, how can you identify particular skills on which to focus

your supplemental instruction sessions? The best way to do this is to work your way through what you expect your students to do. Most of us expect them to read books, to listen to lectures, and to take examinations after preparing for them. If you concentrate on the text-reading, note-taking, studying, and examination-taking skills necessary for those activities, you won't go wrong. Remember, some of the more common comments from students (usually made with an inflection that can't be transcribed) are: "I don't understand the reading; the book is too hard"; "I can't follow you when you lecture", "I study the wrong things"; "I can't take the kind of tests you give; they don't test what I know."

This—sessions devoted to particular skills—is another one of the differences between deluxe supplemental instruction and the on-the-cheap version. When you can't have three or four sessions a week (and if you're the one doing them, you probably can't), you need to plan to spend your time most effectively. By focusing entire sessions on particular skills, you can pay some concentrated attention to the skills that are most important for students' success in your course.

TIMING AND STRUCTURE

The timing of the introduction and conduct of supplemental instruction sessions is crucial to their success. There is an almost irresistible urge to wait to see if your students can, by some miracle, without any assistance from you, learn to apply the principles of your discipline to new situations. All of us believe that examinations are motivators. If students do well on them, there's nothing extra to do; if they do poorly on them, of course, they'll be especially motivated to seek help. Don't believe it, even for a minute. By the time of the first examination, even if it's only three weeks into the course, it's too late to change students' habits. They've settled in. They're doing what they'll continue to do for the rest of the semester, despite the eloquence of your admonitions.

If you want your supplemental instruction to be most effective, you'll need to start it as near to the beginning of the semester as possible. Each student in your course has a set of study skills. Despite your suspicions about the admission office, that's how they got into college. If you let them unpack those

skills and begin to use them, all your warnings about how different your course is from the others they've had will fall on deaf ears. By scheduling your set of supplemental instruction sessions in the first two weeks of the semester, you can give substance to your claims that there is something more than memory to be done in your course. Do them early. The first exam will tell students if what you suggest is productive. If it is, they'll keep doing it. If it isn't, then, well, maybe they can go back to memorizing without any risk.

Let me say a word about attendance. If these sessions are advertised—in the syllabus and orally in class—you'll find that attendance will be much higher if the sessions are held early, before the first exam. Students perceive them as a normal (and almost expected) part of the course. There is none of the stigma that often attaches to workshops, help sessions, and the like conducted because "a lot of you didn't do well on the first exam." All of this works together to convince them that you might be serious when you say that "you can't succeed in this course by memorizing."

More important than advertising are the sessions themselves. What must be done to ensure that they are productive and interesting? There are, I think, three general principles that can be easily translated into meaningful workshop sessions. The first is the most important. The workshops, as the name implies, should be active. Don't let your students just sit there and take notes on what you say, even if the skill you plan to cover is note-taking. What you hope they take away from the workshop is a set of new ways of doing things, not a list of things that would be good to do. If they are going to learn how to study, how to take examinations, how to take notes, how to read texts, they are going to have to engage in those activities. Lists of principles are fine. In fact, you should probably try to develop some as summaries to be distributed at the end of the workshops. But, by themselves, the principles, no matter how cogent, won't do. They must be derived from activity if they are to do the job.

Of course, just any activity won't do. This brings up the second principle. Your workshops should simulate the actual conditions under which your students labor. Don't give them a list of principles of text-reading; give them a list of principles that apply to the specific texts assigned in your course. Don't

engage them in note-taking from a packaged lecture; engage them in note-taking from a video tape of a lecture you've just given in class. This is the heart of the idea. Your workshops are designed to encourage the development in students of study skills that will allow them to succeed in your course. Those skills are best developed through the active use of the materials from your course. Use your texts, use your lectures, use your examinations. If you don't, give up your workshops altogether—they already hold workshops using generic material in the Learning Assistance Center.

There is no reason to go to the trouble to conduct workshops if you don't give your students a chance to put to work the skills you've focused on. This is the third principle: your workshops should give students plenty of opportunities to practice on real, live course material the skills they are developing. In your sessions, have them read and re-read the texts you've assigned. Help them to apply the principles to the material. Have them study for an examination. Give them the exam. Review it with them. Give them a chance to re-study. Give them a comparable exam, and so on. Whatever you do, give your students an opportunity to practive what you have been preaching.

A SAMPLE SESSION

Perhaps an illustration will help make clear just how these principles can be put into practice. I usually conduct four workshops for my students sometime in the first two weeks of the semester. The most important is, I believe, the one devoted to studying. Even with the best notes in the world, a clear idea of the reading, and freshly honed test-taking skills, a student who has no idea of how to put those things together in a meaningful way is simply not going to succeed.

My studying workshop is usually the third in the series, and as such it follows the format established by the first two. The students come expecting to do some studying. And that is precisely what I ask them to do. Using the same excerpt from their text that I used in the reading workshop, I ask them to take five or ten minutes to study the material. The realism of the situation is heightened by the fact that at the conclusion of their study time I tell them that there will be a short, three

question test. And away they go. I've reproduced the excerpt (Freud, 1961) below, and it might be fun for you to duplicate the exercise as you read this article.

> Our enquiry concerning happiness has not so far taught us much that is not already common knowledge. And even if we proceed from it to the problem of why it is so hard for men to be happy, there seems no greater prospect of learning anything new. We have given the answer already by pointing to three sources from which our suffering comes: the superior power of nature, the feebleness of our own bodies and the inadequacy of the regulations which adjust the mutual relationships of human beings in the family, the state and society. In regard to the first two sources, our judgement cannot hesitate long. It forces us to acknowledge those sources of suffering and to submit to the inevitable. We shall never completely master nature; and our bodily organism, itself a part of that nature, will always remain a transient structure with a limited capacity for adaptation and achievement. This recognition does not have a paralyzing effect. On the contrary, it points the direction for our activity. If we cannot remove all suffering, we can remove some, and we can mitigate some: the experience of many thousands of years has convinced us of that. As regards the third source, the social source of suffering, our attitude is a different one. We do not admit it at all; we cannot see why the regulations made by ourselves should not, on the contrary, be a protection and benefit for every one of us. And yet, when we consider how unsuccessful we have been in precisely this field of prevention of suffering, a suspicion dawns on us that here, too, a piece of unconquerable nature may lie behind—this time a piece of our own psychical constitution.
>
> When we start considering this possibility, we come upon a contention which is so astonishing that we must dwell upon it. This contention holds that what we call our civilization is largely responsible for our misery, and that we should be much happier if we gave it up and returned to primitive conditions. I call this contention astonishing because, in whatever way we may define the concept of civilization, it is a certain fact that all the things with which we seek to protect ourselves against the threats that emanate from the sources of suffering are part of that very civilization.

Are you ready for the examination? Most of them, as is probably the case with those of you who are playing along at home, say they think so, but they are a little nervous because they don't know exactly what is going to be on the test. It's a perfect simulation of the situation that obtains when the first real exam is given in the course. Without further ado, the test.

Exam I

1. What are the three sources from which human suffering comes?
2. Which of the sources of human suffering seems most likely to be controlled by human efforts?
3. In which condition, primitive or civilized, does Freud believe we would be happier?

So, how did you do? Was the test hard? Easy? As you might guess, after I review the answers most students discover they did well on this examination. It is precisely the kind of thing they know how to prepare for. The questions are drawn directly from the reading, and they require nothing more advanced than memory. The students know that. With a little prompting, they will tell me that the test was "easy because it was all right there and they just had to memorize it."

At this point, when they are flushed with success, I remind them that for my course memorization is not the most important skill. With that as the only hint, I tell them that they've got five more minutes to study for another examination with three new questions of a different kind. In they plunge; they still know what to do. Take the same five minutes to get ready for Exam II.

Exam II

1. Freud believes that some of our suffering is inevitable. Explain the logic behind Freud's belief.
2. The "human source" of suffering, Freud says, cannot be "admitted at all." What is the meaning of this claim?
3. Freud claims that we would be happier if we "abandoned" civilization. Explain the reasons behind this "astonishing" claim.

They don't do quite so well on this examination, but still the performance of the group is good. Of course, they say this examination is harder than the first one, and they suspect that it is this sort of question that will appear on the first real exam in a week or two. When I ask them what they had to do to prepare for this test, they say things like "you really had to know it" or "you couldn't just memorize, you had to understand it." They aren't at a loss. They know how to prepare for this sort of question. They may not like it, but they know how

to do it.

This is the critical point in the workshop. Exam II is probably harder than Exam I, but it does not require students to do anything other than memorize in order to succeed. They now commit to memory connections that Freud makes in the text (or that most likely would be made by a lecturer in class) instead of isolated bits of information. Nonetheless, they memorize. What they must memorize differs; the intellectual skill remains the same. The point is not lost on them. The two exams test the same content and the same skill- memory. Exam II may require students to memorize more important material, but the answers to the questions can be supplied by rote.

Again, that's not the skill I am interested in my students developing. So, you've guessed it, I tell them that they've got a few more minutes and then there will be yet another exam, over the same material, with three questions of still another type. Now they've run out of ideas and patience (as you must be). "Just give us the test," they say. Okay, here goes.

Exam III

1. Advances in medicine promise to relieve pain and suffering and to prolong human life. Explain how Freud would react to a statement that these sorts of advances promise to eliminate the suffering that comes "from the feebleness of our own bodies."
2. A claim is made that society, if it is just, with equal opportunity for all, can produce satisfied and happy individuals. How would Freud respond to such a claim?
3. A sociologist claims that because of modern conveniences and technological advances, citizens in the industrial world are better off than members of "primitive" civilizations. How would Freud respond to this idea?

What is different about these questions? They aren't in the reading, you can't memorize the answers, and ultimately, they say, you can't study for them. But, of course, what they mean is that there is nothing to memorize, and because memorizing is studying, well, there's no way to prepare. By now they have figured out that the sort of questions that I intend to ask is the kind on Exam III. They also have some idea of what won't be productive when they sit down to study. And that's

not bad, especially because they have discovered it in an active way in a situation enough like their real classroom experiences to be meaningful.

I close the session by trying to crystalize what steps I think are useful in studying Freud. By themselves, I don't believe these study hints are particularly useful. Placed in the context of this workshop, illustrated by a little modeling on my part and a little practice on theirs, they seem to work reasonably well. You can judge for yourself.

HINTS ON STUDYING FREUD

1. Keep in mind the instructional objectives (what you are supposed to know or be able to do). The best reference for you is your syllabus (pages 3 and 4). In it I have described the kinds of things you will be able to do on the examinations, and I have provided some examples.

2. Memorizing massive amounts of material will not help you on the examinations. There will be very few questions designed to test your memory of definitions, etc. Most of the questions will ask you to recognize examples of concepts and to use concepts to interpret new situations.

3. As you read Freud engage him in a dialogue. Ask him questions about things you disagree with; answer them for him (he can't due to his demise—his body caused him suffering). Write down your conversations.

4. Keep close track of examples that Freud uses or that I use in class. Try to construct your own examples based on those that Freud and I use.

5. Make lists of the important concepts. Keep track of how the concepts are connected to one another.

6. Spend your reading time asking questions. What does this mean? How would Freud respond to such and such a claim?

7. Keep in mind that your job is to learn how to think like Freud. You don't need to memorize what Freud thought, you need to be able to apply what he thought to situations he didn't think about.

By using the principles listed above and the outlines of the studying workshop as a rough blueprint, it should be relatively easy to design productive workshop sessions. If the "modeling" mentioned in the discussion of deluxe supplemental instruction is added to them, you have the makings of a top-notch, on-the-cheap program. They try, you model. They try again, you discuss principles. You model, they practice. It will work like a charm.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Speaking of working, does all of this (any of this?) work? It's hard to tell. The results reported in the *JHE* indicate that the deluxe version works, and spectacularly at that. There are no comparable figures for the on-the-cheap model, but, if my own experience is any guide, it's safe to say that the cheap version works, if not spectacularly, very well. Students report overwhelmingly that the sessions are beneficial, and their behavior is consistent with that claim. They sample sessions, and continue to attend. They even bring their friends.

Because of this effectiveness, there is, I think, a temptation to drop the "supplemental" from this sort of instruction and to integrate it into regular class sessions. I have resisted doing this for two reasons. First, not surprisingly, is the issue of coverage. The four sessions I conduct last a cumulative six hours. Further, though the workshops do use course material, and therefore do provide some review of course content, they are expressly devoted to skill development. If that time is removed from the class sessions that remain after those several periods devoted to examinations are subtracted, I would have to choose to drop course material in order to develop skills. Happily, when the sessions are supplemental, that is a choice that doesn't have to be made.

Second, I believe the "supplemental" character of the workshops has a salutary effect on students' perception of the course and what they need to do in order to succeed. It is clear to them from the workshops that the course demands something different. It is also clear that to them their instructor recognizes his reponsiblity to provide students the support they require. The fact that I (not some "third-party" specialist) conduct these supplemental workshops demonstrates in a way that ample office hours do not that I am willing to work outside of class to help them develop the skills they need to succeed in class. This message makes its mark on them.

If you don't find this apology for "supplementalism" persuasive, devote some class time to course-content-based skill instruction. After all, it's the idea not the structure that's important.

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October, 1987